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INTERRACIAL AND MINORITY-GROUP PROBLEMS IN SCHOOLS

THE April number of the *School Review* carried, in its "Educational News and Editorial Comment," an item on student strikes, with particular reference to a strike in one of the high schools of Gary, Indiana, where white students demanded the exclusion of Negro students. This and other similar incidents have resulted in the appearance in the press of the country of considerable unfavorable publicity regarding interracial and minority-group conflicts in the schools. These outbreaks of intolerance and group antagonism on the part of students have been taken up by parent and adult groups. Instead of helping to resolve the conflicts, these groups have, all too frequently, abetted the students and thus have made the situations more difficult for school administrators and teachers.

The un-American character of these interracial and minority-group outbreaks stimulated an investigation by

the Judd Club, a group of secondary-school administrators in the Chicago area who meet once a month during the school year at the University of Chicago to study administrative problems. The purpose of the investigation was twofold: (1) to discover whether there exist in the member-schools conditions that are potential sources of interracial and minority conflicts and (2) to ascertain what is being done by the schools to prevent such conflicts from occurring.

Of the 60 schools participating in the investigation, 36 have mixed enrolments, 17 permit mixed enrolments but have no Negro students, and 7 schools do not allow Negroes to enrol. The total enrolment of the 60 schools is 65,805. Approximately 96 per cent of the students are white; 3.53 per cent are Negro, and less than 1 per cent, Asiatics. Twenty-eight of the schools with mixed enrolments reported cases of interracial dissension and minority-group conflicts. The nature of the difficulties was analyzed as follows:

	Number of Schools
Tendency for groups to separate and not to mingle freely.....	17
Tendency toward physical violence between groups.....	4
Tendency toward open quarrels or name-calling between groups....	3
Tendency toward physical violence between individuals representing opposing groups.....	2
Tendency for a group to seek advantages for itself at the expense of another group.....	1
Tendency for one group to speak openly against another group....	1

The general causes of dissension and conflict reported by twenty-seven of the twenty-eight schools were:

	Number of Schools
A feeling of insecurity on the part of some group.....	9
An attitude of superiority on the part of some group.....	7
Conflicting demands from various groups (pupils or parents) as to what the school's policies should be.....	5
Differing mores or customs among two or more groups.....	3
Widely differing social or economic levels among two or more groups	3

The investigation reveals the racial and minority groups which have been involved in conflicts with white students and the places where the conflicts have occurred, such as classrooms, special rooms, corridors, school grounds, school neighborhoods, and athletic contests. Administrative policies and practices were analyzed to ascertain possible causes of the dissatisfaction among students which might result in antagonistic attitudes and tensions. School-board policies are

also considered as possible sources of interracial and minority-group conflicts.

The second part of the investigation sought to ascertain the nature of the efforts made by the schools to develop mutual understanding and co-operation among the different groups. These efforts are listed in the following tabulation, which also gives the number of schools, among the sixty reporting, making or not making each effort.

	Yes	No
Establishment of a common lunch-room for all groups.....	42	1
Organization of school parties for all groups.....	41	2
Equal opportunity for participation of qualified individuals in interscholastic competition....	41	1
Equal opportunity in extra-curriculum activities:		
Dramatics.....	40	2
Band and orchestra.....	39	3
Social clubs.....	36	5
Establishment of common facilities for free play.....	40	1
Equal opportunity for participation of all students in intramural activities.....	39	3
Student council or other school government activities.....	30	9
Recommendations to superintendent and board of education:		
For improvement of school facilities which affect racial and minority group relations	6	20
For modification of discriminatory school policies.....	3	24
A faculty committee on intercultural problems.....	5	25
A community survey with some emphasis on the problems of racial and minority groups....	5	26
A special student committee on intercultural problems.....	3	28

	Yes	No
An all-school committee of students, faculty, and parents on intercultural problems.....	2	30

Most of the schools have made attempts to improve intercultural relations through the revision of the curriculum, through the reorganization of materials of instruction in subject fields, and through methods of instruction. The following tabulation shows the number of schools making the attempts listed.

	Number of Schools
The curriculum:	
Revision to include units of study on democracy.....	24
Revision to include a study of the sociological problems of racial and minority groups..	23
Revision to include the basic facts from science regarding race.....	21
Revision to include emphasis on the contributions of Negroes and minority groups to the nation's development.....	20
Revision to include interpretation of the customs of various ethnic groups.....	16
English:	
Instruction in how to read a newspaper.....	32
Propaganda analysis.....	25
Debates, forums, town meetings	25
Reading of literary and biographical works of significance for intercultural education.....	21
Language clubs.....	1
Social studies:	
Basic discussion of housing, employment, and other social problems.....	41
Study of history and meaning of American democracy.....	40

	Number of Schools
Study of public opinions and polls.....	29
Study of contributions of Negroes and minority groups...	24
Study of contributions of the world's major religions.....	22
Community surveys.....	15
Study of the psychology of crowds.....	15
Debates and forums.....	1

Science:

Improving the health of all groups.....	32
Facts about the races of mankind.....	26
Instructing pupils in social hygiene and the facts of sex....	25
Improving the cleanliness of underprivileged groups.....	21
Scientific evidence on the brotherhood of all mankind.....	17

The schools are also undertaking to solve interracial and minority-group problems through extra-curriculum activities and social organization. The following tabulation reveals the measures attempted and the number of schools undertaking each measure.

	Number of Schools
Realization of the importance of cooperative effort and team play..	42
Training in how to give and take in a sportsmanlike manner.....	41
Development of tolerance for the views and acts of others.....	41
Opportunities provided for developing qualities of leadership.	40
Development of a common loyalty to the school.....	39
Learning to accept criticism without taking personal offense....	36
Development of personal friendship between individuals of racial and minority groups.....	31
Importance of subordinating indi-	

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	Number of Schools
vidual desires to the decisions of the larger group	31
Realization that individual aggres- siveness is a barrier to the de- velopment of wholesome inter- group relationships	27
Assistance in overcoming inferior- ity feelings due to race and mi- nority-group background	26
Awareness of the need for overcom- ing characteristics offensive to members of other groups	21

WORKSHOPS IN INTERGROUP EDUCATION

THE tensions reflected in the data reported in the preceding item suggest the need for special training for school people which will assist them in handling more effectively the problems encountered in the schools. Three workshops in intergroup education are to be held this summer under the auspices of the project on Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools of the American Council on Education. Workshops at the University of Chicago and at Syracuse University will be directed by Hilda Taba and Herbert K. Walther, respectively. The workshop at the University of Chicago will run from June 24 to August 3, 1946; that at Syracuse University, from July 1 to August 10, 1946. The workshop at Mills College, directed by Marie M. Hughes, will be held from July 6 to August 17, 1946.

The workshops are open to teachers, supervisors, administrators, librarians, guidance workers, counselors, school psychologists, and community workers. In each of the work-

shops, provisions will be made for the following areas: community relations; curriculum in social studies, literature and English, and science; guidance and human development; elementary education and children's literature. All will be focused on the need for developing orientation and craftsmanship in teaching human relations and in organizing democratic group life in the school and community. The workshop at the University of Chicago will feature special help in evaluation; the Mills College workshop will emphasize community relations; and the workshop at Syracuse University will have an especially strong section in elementary education. For further information write to Hilda Taba, Intergroup Education in Co-operating Schools, 437 West Fifty-ninth Street, New York 19, New York.

LAYMEN TO ADVISE UNITED STATES OFFICE OF EDUCATION

COMMISSIONER JOHN W. STUDEBAKER has announced establishment of a Citizens' Federal Committee on Education to advise with him regarding policies and programs of service to be undertaken by the United States Office of Education. The membership of the committee is to be made up of persons designated by presidents of organizations representing agriculture, business, homemakers, labor, manufacturers, Negro groups, religious groups, the professions, and veterans.

In the Federal Security Administra-

tor's letter to the various organizations invited to be represented on the committee, Administrator Watson Miller stated:

For several years the Office of Education has been assisted in its work by certain advisory committees representing special aspects of education. It seems advisable now to establish a committee of citizens to represent the layman's point of view with respect to American education and particularly in relation to the services which the Office of Education should render. We have decided, therefore, to establish what will be known as the Citizens' Federal Committee on Education, an outline of which is inclosed. I feel sure that you will fully appreciate the value of the contributions which such a committee can make to the progressive development of the service of the U.S. Office of Education and generally to education throughout the country. You will also recognize the very great importance of having outstandingly capable people as members of such a committee.

PARENTS OFFER SUGGESTIONS FOR IMPROVING THE WORK OF THE SCHOOLS

THE March issue of *Better Teaching*, the monthly bulletin of the Department of Instruction of the Cincinnati public schools, reports the results of an inquiry recently sent to parents, soliciting suggestions for helping their children in school. A four-by-six-inch sheet bearing the following request was inclosed with the report cards sent to homes by thirty-five schools:

TO PARENTS: We hope this report provides information you want on your child's progress. If there is other information you would like to have about his (or her) school work or about the school's educational pro-

gram, please tell us about it in the space below. Your comments and suggestions will be helpful to us.

The results are described as follows in the report appearing in *Better Teaching*:

Approximately one-half (53 per cent) of the parents replied by saying they would like to see their children do better work. A majority of these replies include a request for suggestions on how parents can assist children, particularly those whose work is only average or less than average, to attain a higher level of achievement in their school work in general or in particular subjects such as reading, arithmetic, and social studies. The following are illustrative of the replies of this type:

"Please tell me how I can help my son with his spelling and number work."

"What book can I buy to help me coach John in his reading?"

A small proportion of the replies (5.8 per cent) state that the parents are endeavoring in a variety of ways to assist their children achieve a higher level of attainment in their school work. The following are illustrative of this type of reply.

"We are working with Mary on spelling and science so she will improve."

"I am not permitting Bill to listen to any more radio programs until he brings up his marks."

About 10 per cent (9.3 per cent) of the parents request fuller information on their child's school progress.

"Why has Ann's mark in Health Habits gone down?"

"Develop better plan of home-work assignments."

"Plan program so pupils will have less moving from room to room."

"Include spiritual teaching in the curriculum."

"Define each of the terms used on the report card."

"Provide longer lunch period."

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"Reduce interruptions to regular school program."

"Teach the more difficult subjects in the morning."

The principals and teachers of the schools trying the experiment are using the findings in developing a plan for closer co-operation between the school and the home.

PROMOTING INTERNATIONAL UNDERSTANDING THROUGH MUSIC

MUSIC OF THE UNITED NATIONS is the title of a recent Extension Bulletin of the University of Iowa prepared by Anne E. Pierce, associate professor of music education and head of the Department of Music of the University Schools at the University of Iowa, and Edna Ruth Wood, formerly teacher of vocal music at the University High School. The bulletin will assist music teachers in obtaining music materials of the Allied Nations. The underlying conception of the bulletin as stated in the Foreword by L. A. Van Dyke, director of the University High School of the University of Iowa, is that music is a common language, a means of expressing the emotions and the ideals of nations, and therefore an important means to the realization of the hope for a better and a more secure world. The music of the Allied Nations, if widely used and understood, should contribute to the development of good will and understanding among the nations.

The purpose of the bulletin is to make available, in convenient form for the use of teachers, some of the important and characteristic musical

contributions of our allies in World War II. The authors were not able to include compositions of music from all the United Nations. A brief characterization and a list of references of music publications are given for each of the following countries: United States, Great Britain, Russia, China, Belgium, Canada, Czechoslovakia, France, Greece, Norway, Poland, The Netherlands, and the countries of Latin America.

This material may serve as units of work for the required junior high school general music class, the elective appreciation course, and as a basis of programs for instrumental and vocal organizations in the senior high school. Throughout the study, the co-operation of different departments in the school should be enlisted, for by doing so the subject matter and experiences of the pupils will be enriched. To illustrate how this may be done in public programs, the art department may make posters and plan the stage settings; the physical-education teacher may teach typical dances; the home-economics classes may design and make appropriate costumes; the instructor of languages may help in the pronunciation of foreign tongues and may aid in contributing reality to the works; the English and the speech experts may direct the writing of program notes and their oral presentation. History and music should always supplement each other so that clear national pictures may be gained. Instrumental and vocal music should be closely linked at all times. If a correlative or integrative plan of teaching is not possible, music teachers should exert themselves to become familiar with the historical background and the artistic and cultural significance of each country's contribution. Suggestive programs, plans, and a list of histories appear at the end of the bulletin.

WHY HIGH-SCHOOL PUPILS LEAVE SCHOOL

IN A study made by George Melcher, superintendent emeritus of schools in Kansas City, Missouri, and published in the monthly publication of the Curriculum Council and the Division of Instruction of the Kansas City public schools, it was found that for the school year 1943-44 one out of every three pupils entering the Kansas City high schools dropped out before graduation. The purpose of the study was to find out what the "drop-outs" were doing a year or more after withdrawing from school and how they were getting along.

The report states: "Three-fourths of them have had only one or two jobs since leaving school—a very good record. One-fourth of the boys began work at \$30 or more per week; one-half at \$24 or more per week; and three-fourths at \$15 or more per week. One-fourth of the girls began at \$20 or more per week; one-half at \$18 or more per week; and three-fourths at \$15 or more per week.

"Most of them had been working twelve to fifteen months. The boys had increased their weekly wages about one-third on the average and the girls had increased their weekly wages by almost 50 per cent on the average. On this final wage report we find one-fourth of the boys receiving \$40 or more per week; one-half, \$32 or more per week; and three-fourths, \$28 or more per week. We find one-fourth of the girls receiving \$32 or more per week; one-half, \$25 or more; and three-fourths, \$22 or more per week. Among the boys we find four with a final wage above \$50, as follows; a machinist, \$75 per week; a musician in a band, \$65 per week; a carpenter, \$56 per week; and a precision grinder, \$52.80 per week. Among the girls, three in

clerical work received over \$40 per week, as follows; \$50, \$48, and \$45. . . ."

Not only were these young people working; most of them were happy in their work. They mentioned "promotions," "pay increases," "added responsibilities," and "increased opportunities." Many of them (20 per cent of the boys and 15 per cent of the girls) said that one thing they particularly like about their work was "a chance to learn."

"These same boys and girls had run away from a chance to learn in the schoolroom. Why? Some answered they like 'everything about their work.' Some merely stated that work was 'interesting.' Some liked having responsibilities. Some of the boys liked 'mechanical work.' Some in the military service answered 'serving my country.' Twenty per cent of the girls in answer to the question, 'What do you like about your work?' stated 'meeting people,' 15 per cent said 'pleasant associates.' . . ."

What were the reasons for leaving school—not the reasons offered at the time of leaving, but given a year or more later without any pressure? All except five answered this question.

"Of the boys, twenty-four left on account of the war. Thirteen left on account of poor health. Fifteen attributed their withdrawals directly to the teachers or the school administration with such statements as 'disliked the teacher or teachers,' 'teachers no help,' 'attitude of teachers,' 'critical teachers,' 'false reasons for failure,' 'made up absentee work, but refused credit.' Twenty-five made such statements as: 'couldn't like school,' 'hated school,' 'not interested in school,' 'being bored,' 'lost interest in school,' 'discouraged,' 'confused,' 'didn't seem to belong,' 'didn't know the value of high school.' Is it not possible that the teacher, the method of teaching, and the organization of teaching materials had much to do with these twenty-five? Only ten gave failing grades as the chief cause of with-

drawal. Twenty left school to go to work; nine because of a desire to work to make money and be independent; eight because their work was needed to support the family; in three of these cases the father was dead; three left because their work was needed in the home on account of illness; four left on account of snobbish and unfriendly students; three on account of home problems; two on account of bad eyesight. In nine there is an element of frustration and a lack of adjustment, showing clearly a need of more constructive helpful guidance.

"Nine gave marriage as the chief reason for leaving school."

"The twenty-four pupils who left for military service, the thirteen who left on account of poor health, and the seven who left for marriage are not the responsibility of the school. The remaining seventy-three who left because of teachers, failing grades, dislike of school, and various miscellaneous reasons are the responsibility of the school. Smaller classes, more counseling, better teaching techniques, and more interested and sympathetic teachers would probably have saved from failure and withdrawal from school the major part of these seventy-three pupils."

Several questions were directed at this matter of "likes" and "dislikes" in respect to school, on the assumption that this emotional factor is important in determining a school career.

"In what elementary-school grades and in what high-school year, do pupils form a dislike for school? Of the 119 pupils reporting, 88 attended kindergarten and all except one of the 88 liked kindergarten. All pupils liked first grade and second grade. Of the 119, 37 or 31 per cent never at any time disliked school."

"Twenty pupils of the eighty who formed a dislike for school did so in the upper elementary grades V, VI, and VII; 40 or one-half of the eighty, formed that dislike in the first and second years of high school. These years seem to need special attention. These figures seem to confirm the statement that

is often made, 'Children in the primary grades like to play school, children in the upper grades like to play hockey.'

"What are the main causes of this dislike of school?" The answers to this question indicate that there are only two main causes, the teachers and the studies. . . ."

What would these young people recommend to others who had a choice of leaving school or staying to graduate?

"After reading the severe criticisms that these young people made on their teachers, their studies, the school methods, and the school system, one would expect them to place a relatively low value upon high-school training. Believe it or not, quite the opposite is true."

"In spite of the fact that these 119 pupils left school before graduation, 107 of them would advise boys and girls to finish high school, and 102 say a full four-year high-school course would have been beneficial to them."

BASIC ISSUES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

IN JUNE, 1944, a consultative committee was appointed by George D. Stoddard, commissioner of education of the State of New York, to consider postwar problems in secondary education in that state. The report of this committee was completed in September, 1945, and has recently appeared in printed form under the title *Basic Issues in Secondary Education*. The chairman of the committee, George M. Wiley, in the Letter of Transmittal states that the major problem of the committee centered in the achievement of a proper balance between general and special education at the secondary level and in the attempt to relate the secondary school to the needs of youth.

Secondary-school leaders generally should read this report, which was prepared by practical school men who, while considering projective and imaginative elements, must also take stock of the financial and administrative factors involved in the modification of educational programs.

The scope of the work of the committee can be appreciated by restating the seventeen sets of questions which were explored in the preparation of the report.

1. How many constants should there be in the secondary-school program? What quality of work should be expected in support of each subject or major sequence? How many mandates should there be and how may we keep them from impinging upon each other in their demands upon a pupil's time, energy, and interest?

2. What is the relation of the system of Regents examinations to the holding power of high schools? For example, do boys and girls tend to drop out because the last two years appear to be college preparatory? Is there sufficient latitude within the classroom or the schedule for pupils who may be interested in high-school graduation or in terminal education, but not in further work preparatory to a regular college course? These questions may be generalized: What is the place of the Regents examination and the Regents diploma in the program of the secondary school?

3. What is the relation between vocational and general education at the high-school level? How much general education is appropriate in a technical or vocational school, and how much work designated as "vocational" is suitable for the comprehensive high school? Does the curriculum meet the needs of all youth? Should we recognize two kinds of students in terms of vocational or academic interests? What general areas of education are essential to all high-school

pupils in view of their subsequent personal, civic, and work responsibilities?

4. What is the place of work experience in the school curriculum? Since it is held that in 1934 work opportunities were too few, while in 1943 they were too many, the question is: What amount of work is genuinely educative?

5. As a result of the war experience, what changes should we undertake with respect to such matters as health and physical education, mathematics and technical subjects, foreign languages, humanities, art, and the social studies? What changes in textbooks, visual and auditory aids, and methods of testing are indicated? How shall the work undertaken at the secondary level in the United States Armed Forces Institute, or in other military enterprises, be evaluated and properly related to postwar secondary offerings?

6. How can we achieve a unity of educational philosophy and a harmonious working arrangement as between local boards and school authorities, on the one hand, and the State Education Department, on the other? How much state directive, supervision, and planning and how much local initiative and evaluation should we count upon? Can we develop an educational policy with the understanding that programs and procedures will then be turned in the direction indicated? To what extent should policy be a derivative of actual practices in schools and communities? If a policy has not been clearly formulated, is it fair to deduce it from an analysis of school offerings and outcomes?

7. How shall we establish better public relations in the field of secondary education? To what extent should board members and professional staff members in education take part in public information—for example, through radio, newspapers, and popular journals? Are there basic public misunderstandings concerning the offerings, aims, and achievements in secondary education?

8. What can be gained by an analysis of

certain statistical trends in secondary education? For example, what is signified by the remarkable increase of over 1,000 per cent in high-school enrolment since 1900? What trends are envisaged for the future, with special reference to postwar modifications of prediction curves?

9. What policies and practices should be established in the field of guidance and counseling?

10. What changes are desirable in the school year, with special reference to the utilization of the summer period? If the school year is extended, what modification should be made in terms of curricular offerings? For example, do experiences in camping education or Boy Scout programs offer promising leads for regular secondary schools?

11. What is the relation of nonschool experience to programs and outcomes in school—for example, in such matters as health, civic participation, character, and recreation?

12. What may be gained by comparative inquiries into education in other states and in foreign countries?

13. Should there be a compulsory school-leaving age extending to age eighteen or to high-school graduation (with exceptions based on case histories)? If so, what changes would be indicated in the high-school programs to take care of additional youth who now drop out below this age? Should there be arrangements for part-time education in addition to the programs recommended for the new institutes?

14. What are the plans for articulating the work of the new Institutes of Applied Arts and Sciences with high-school programs? Should some high-school sequences be pointed toward a two-year post-secondary program in the sense that certain high-school courses are now preparatory to college?

15. What changes in buildings, fixtures, equipment, and materials are necessary if new programs are to be properly provided for?

16. How shall we select, train, and upgrade teachers to take care of improved school services?

17. What changes in the local and state financial structure are indicated?

MATERIAL FOR SELF-GUIDANCE OF YOUTH

THE Hogg Foundation of the University of Texas has published a pamphlet, under the authorship of Archie J. Bahm, addressed to youth themselves. The title of the pamphlet is *What's Ahead for Me: My Job—My Marriage—My Education*. The assumption is that every youth must, to some extent, assume responsibility for the planning of his own future. The more information taken into account in this planning, the more valid the decisions reached are likely to be.

Although the treatment is brief, it is very informative. The everyday problems of normal youth are considered, and special emphasis is placed not on pat answers to questions but on the stimulation of the reader's thought. For each of the three areas considered, references to more extensive treatments are given. Copies of the pamphlet may be secured for twenty-five cents from the Hogg Foundation, University of Texas, Austin, Texas.

CONFERENCE FOR TEACHERS OF SOCIAL SCIENCES IN HIGH SCHOOLS AND JUNIOR COLLEGES

THE sixth annual Conference for Teachers of Social Sciences in High Schools and Junior Colleges will be held at the University of Chicago on July 24, 25, and 26, 1946. The

theme of the conference is "Postwar Problems of Student and Teacher." It is the purpose of the conference to stress the fact that these are not problems of teachers or students but rather are problems which affect both. The papers will range from a consideration of the needs of adolescents and the problems of student counseling to such so-called "large" problems as the barriers preventing effective use of manpower in peacetime, the relation between the internal efficiency of Congress and its usefulness as a law-making body for a nation, and the state's obligation to guarantee civil liberties. Other topics bearing immediately on the curriculum in the social sciences are the dimensions of the problem of intercultural and interracial relations, the significance of recent geo-political theories for the teaching of geography, the rationale of planning, the problem of freedom of the press, and the problem of the mental health of students.

Requests for the complete program should be addressed to Professor Earl S. Johnson, Box 51, Social Science Building, the University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois.

SUMMER CONFERENCE ON IMPROVING THE PROGRAM IN ARITHMETIC

IN 1930 the yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, *Report of the Society's Committee on Arithmetic*, marked the end of a period of formalism in this subject and rather timidly proposed that the time had come for reform. Since then, two

brief but more vigorous yearbooks of the National Council of Teachers of Mathematics have made outright proposals for improvement and have contributed some new concepts regarding the objectives and the content of arithmetic. These two publications appeared in 1935 and 1941. Recently the armed forces' criticisms of the outcomes of teaching this subject have been given rather wide publicity.

The time seems ripe for another overview of arithmetic which will take account of the trends of the last fifteen years and will attempt to clarify the issues that have emerged. Accordingly the Department of Education of the University of Chicago is initiating a three-day conference on "Improving the Program in Arithmetic" to be held July 22, 23, and 24. The University invites to this conference members of curriculum committees, supervisors, principals, instructors in teacher-training institutions, and specialists in the field of arithmetic. There will be no fee for attending the conference.

The discussions will center in three major issues. The first of these is the concept of functional arithmetic and its implications for the content and the method of teaching this subject. The second major issue pertains to the concept of meaning, which has received much discussion, both pro and con, in the recent literature on arithmetic. The third issue is how to evaluate the outcomes of the newer concepts of arithmetic which have emerged since the National Society yearbook of 1930.

Conference speakers will include both outside leaders and members of the faculty of the University of Chicago. Programs and further information may be obtained by writing to Professor G. T. Buswell, Department of Education, University of Chicago.

CONFERENCE FOR ADMINISTRATIVE
OFFICERS OF PUBLIC AND
PRIVATE SCHOOLS

THE fifteenth annual Conference for Administrative Officers of Public and Private Schools will be held during the week of July 15-19, 1946. Lectures by members of the Department of Education and visiting specialists will be given in the forenoon, and round-table conferences for superintendents, secondary-school principals, and elementary-school principals will be conducted in the afternoon. The conference is open, without fee, to students registered in the summer quarter and to administrators of public and private schools. If desired, credit for one-half course may be obtained by payment of a fee of \$25, by the completion of a list of supplementary readings, and by the passing of an examination based on the lectures, round-table conferences, and readings.

The general theme of the conference is "Educational Administration: A Survey of Progress, Problems, and Needs." The topics to be discussed and the titles of addresses are given below. A number of outstanding speakers have been selected. Persons

desiring to receive copies of the complete program in advance of the conference should send their requests to Professor William C. Reavis, Department of Education, University of Chicago, Chicago 37, Illinois.

Monday, July 15

FOUNDATIONS OF MODERN EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATION

1. Educational Administration as a Profession
2. The Educational Administrator as a Professional Leader
3. The Role of University Departments of Education in the Preparation of School Administrators

Tuesday, July 16

SCIENTIFIC BASES OF EDUCATIONAL
ADMINISTRATION

1. Findings of School Surveys
2. Contributions of Research in Educational Administration
3. Contributions of Research in Public Administration

Wednesday, July 17

STAFF AND CURRICULUM ADMINISTRATION

1. Professionalizing the Teaching Staff
2. Organization and Administration of the Curriculum
3. Direction and Administration of Instruction

Thursday, July 18

EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION AS
EFFICIENT MANAGEMENT

1. Administrative and Supervisory Organization
2. School Finance and Business Practices
3. Planning School Buildings and Equipment

Friday, July 19

EXPANDING ADMINISTRATIVE
RESPONSIBILITIES

1. The Pupil Personnel Program
2. Home and Community Services
3. Developing an Effective Pattern of Administrative Services

SUMMER WORKSHOP

THE summer-quarter program of the Department of Education, University of Chicago, includes an integrated workshop in the three areas of elementary and secondary education and human development. The sections relating to elementary and secondary education will be primarily concerned with the curriculum of the schools, the latter giving emphasis to curriculum problems in English, mathematics, science, and the social studies. It is the essential purpose of these sections of the workshop to provide the opportunity for teachers, supervisors, principals, and others having special interests and responsibilities in curriculum to work on their own problems with the aid of the University's extraordinary resources in

this area. These two sections of the workshop will be in operation for a period of five weeks beginning on June 27.

The section of the workshop devoted to the field of human development and education is designed for the professional personnel of all levels, including higher education, and especially for those who desire to use the findings of research on human development and behavior in their present or prospective professional work. This section of the workshop will be in session for a period of nine weeks, from June 24 to August 24. Persons desiring to participate in the program of this section for a shorter period may register for either of two six-week terms, June 24—August 3 or July 15—August 24.

Information concerning the program of any section of the workshop and the registration procedure will be sent on application to the Executive Secretary of the University of Chicago Workshop, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.

WILLIAM C. REAVIS

WHO'S WHO FOR MAY

Authors of news notes and articles The news notes in this issue have been prepared by WILLIAM C. REAVIS, professor of education at the University of Chicago. FLOYD W. REEVES, professor of administration at the University of Chicago, discusses the necessity of establishing a world government if we are to have world peace and points out how education can contribute toward attaining this goal. CYRIL O. HOULE, associate professor of education and dean of the University College at the University of Chicago, analyzes a course on great books presented for adults. SARA G. BYERS, teacher in charge of remedial reading and special testing in the Mount Lebanon public schools, Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, discusses the importance of a solid reading foundation for mastering all subject fields at all grade levels. LEWIS A. DEXTER, lecturer at Bryn Mawr College, Bryn Mawr, Pennsylvania, presents the criteria which, in his opinion, form a valid basis for analyzing our educational programs. ALFRED APSLER, teacher at Grant High School, Portland, Oregon, compares American and European secondary schools from the viewpoint of the teacher. DONALD

K. BECKLEY, on leave from Rochester Institute of Technology and a graduate student in the Department of Education at the University of Chicago, and LEO F. SMITH, director of educational research at the Rochester Institute of Technology, Rochester, New York, present the opinions of graduates concerning the program of co-operative education that they had followed. The selected references for this issue were prepared by G. T. BUSWELL, professor of educational psychology at the University of Chicago, and MANDEL SHERMAN, professor of educational psychology at the same University.

Reviewers of books THOMAS E. CHRISTENSEN, director of guidance at South High School, Worcester, Massachusetts. JOHN R. MOOK, instructor in education at Pestalozzi-Froebel Teachers College, Chicago, Illinois. ROBERT E. SCHREIBER, research assistant in the Audio-visual Instructional Materials Center at the University of Chicago. HARRIETT COCHRAN RICHARDSON, teacher of commercial subjects at Lyons Township High School and Junior College, La Grange, Illinois.

YOUTH AND THE WORLD OF TOMORROW

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THE world of tomorrow will be a world of machines. The manufacture and distribution of goods, together with the provision of services, will provide jobs for most working people. Agriculture will play an ever decreasing role. Few workers will be self-employed. Almost everyone will work for someone else. The world of tomorrow will be a world of atomic energy. Already we have entered the atomic age. Such energy can release men and women from the drudgery that has always been the fate of most of them. It can also destroy utterly and completely all vestiges of our present civilization. There are these alternatives. I doubt that there are others. Either the world of tomorrow will bring material goods, services, and leisure hitherto undreamed of, or it will bring utter destruction of civilization.

ONE WORLD OR CHAOS

The time has arrived when all peoples must unite or the civilization of all will perish—and most of the people with it. Technological advancement has made "One World" a necessity. There must be one world community with one world government.

That government must have authority to make laws; to protect the rights of people under those laws with force, if necessary; and to pass judgment upon the acts both of men and of nations.

Some skeptics tell us that we cannot organize a world government until we first have a world community, but they overlook the fact that there now exists among peoples a community of interests reaching far beyond the borders of any nation. Others are equally convinced that a world community cannot be developed without first establishing a world government. If either of these groups is right, then, indeed, we are lost. For unless a world government and a world community can be developed simultaneously—each aiding in the formation of the other—and unless both a world government and a world community can be achieved quickly, then truly there is no hope.

There must be developed in every nation a willingness to delegate some power upward to a world government. The only kind of world organization that offers any hope for world peace is one with power to make laws, with power to judge both individuals

and nations under those laws, and with a police agency to enforce those laws. The United Nations Organization does not possess these powers, but it does provide the only machinery that now exists through which a world government with such powers might be developed.

[Either we are going to have a world government—and that without much delay—or civilization will end. I know of only two ways through which world government can come about: one by the peaceful transfer of some elements of power from nations to a world government; the other by the ultimate conquest of the world by one nation. Here again I see no other alternatives. I doubt that there is a middle ground.

Responsibility commensurate with their power rests upon both peoples and nations. Today the United States of America is the most powerful nation in the world. Because of its power, its responsibility for building the machinery of world government and at the same time developing a world community is greater than that of any other nation. No nation has ever faced a task so important, so difficult, and so urgent. No nation has ever been confronted with a task that requires such a high degree of statesmanship for its successful accomplishment.

Statesmanship upon the part of leaders is not enough. The term "leaders" implies followers. Neither can exist without the other. But in a democracy such as ours, followers do not follow blindly; they select their

own leaders and then inform those leaders of the general direction in which to go. In order that the selecting and the instructing may be done effectively, both the leaders and those led need intelligence and wisdom.

In a democracy such as ours, sovereignty inheres in the people. As, through the years, the people of our several states have transferred more and more powers from the states to the federal government, the people have lost none of their sovereignty. They have simply transferred power from a smaller to a larger unit. The people of the world who possess sovereignty will lose none of it as they transfer power from their nations to a world government.

A major need today in the United States, the nation with the greatest responsibility for the future of civilization, is the need for statesmanship upon the part of leaders and for intelligence and understanding upon the part of those who select the leaders. Our nation has not lacked statesmen in the past, but it has never had enough of them, and the people who selected statesmen as representatives have often been too shortsighted either to permit them to act wisely or to follow them when their decisions have been wise. We have always been a nation of isolationists, partly because of geography and partly because of our own tremendous natural resources. Because we have been protected by two oceans and have had undeveloped or weak nations for

neighbors, and because we have possessed large resources, we have never had to learn the basic elements of statesmanship in world affairs.

OBSTACLES TO ATTAINMENT OF ONE WORLD

The most important factors that stand in the way of a peaceful world in the years that lie ahead are (1) economic barriers set up by nations to prevent other nations from securing access to raw materials needed for the development of their economies; (2) cultural barriers existing within nations and among nations that lead to discrimination on the basis of color, race, and religious beliefs; and (3) fear on the part of individuals, on the part of groups of individuals within nations, and on the part of nations themselves. These three factors are interrelated and inseparable. Economic barriers result in discrimination and in fear of others. Discrimination sets up economic barriers and creates fear of others. Fear of others is a basic cause of discrimination and of the establishment of economic barriers. These interrelationships hold true among individuals; they hold true among groups within nations; and they hold true among nations.

The United States, because of its responsibility as the world's most powerful nation, must take the lead in eliminating economic and cultural barriers among nations. Other nations will more readily follow, however, if we first set an example through

eliminating, or at least reducing, cultural and economic barriers within our own nation. In the United States we must try to provide all groups, majority and minority alike, with equal opportunities for education, for jobs, for housing, for food, and for clothing.

The reduction of inequalities of opportunity within a nation requires greater opportunities for all. Such reduction seldom takes place in any nation so long as total opportunities fall far short of meeting the needs of all the people. Inequalities in the opportunity for education in the United States will be reduced when there are schools enough for all and when schools are effectively accessible to all. Inequalities in opportunity for employment will be reduced when there is a plentiful supply of jobs for all who wish to work. Opportunity for decent housing for minority groups will await decent housing for all groups. Economically handicapped groups will have an opportunity to secure enough food of the right kind when there is enough food of the right kind for all groups.

More than any other single factor, equality of opportunity for the good things of life in the United States depends on prosperity at home. Prosperity, in turn, depends on a high level of production; a high level of production depends on a high level of employment; a high level of employment will reduce both economic and cultural barriers within our nation, thus mak-

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ing it possible for us to undertake our obligation of world leadership directed toward securing a peaceful and prosperous world community.

EDUCATION THE ONLY HOPE

The relationship of equality of opportunity to the establishment of a world community needs to be clearly understood by all. Education is the only key that can unlock the door to such understanding. The major hope for securing the kind of world we want is education of the right kind.

The advance in scientific knowledge and in technology has been so rapid that knowledge of how to organize human beings to live in a world of machines and atomic energy has not kept pace. The great need today is for people to learn how to organize their activities so that they can live together in a world community. Further advancement in the natural sciences has little to contribute at this particular time to the development of a world community. Neither is the development of new technological techniques a major current need. It is true that science and technology, through the development of rapid transportation and communication, have made it technologically possible for the peoples of the world to develop a world community. They have made it possible—more than that, they have made it absolutely essential—that such development take place. But they have not brought about, and they cannot bring about, a world community.

It remains for the social sciences and the humanities to provide human beings with the knowledge and wisdom necessary to live together in a world community. There is still a place in education for science, and there is still a place for vocational and technical training, but these needs are now so well recognized that I shall not elaborate upon them. The paramount need today in the crisis in which we find ourselves is not new knowledge in the natural sciences or new technical processes; it is more and better general education in the social sciences and the humanities for all persons—children, youth, and adults—everywhere.

General education has been defined by many writers in many different ways. What I have in mind when I use these words in connection with the education provided in our schools is nonvocational education in contrast to vocational education. Within the broad scope of general education as I define it, the greatest need is education in the humanities and the social sciences. These fields, more than the natural sciences, deal with the relationships of human beings with one another. Much of the terror and grief in the world today are primarily due to the lack of ability of human beings to understand and deal justly with one another.

Within the broad fields of the social sciences and the humanities, many subject-matter disciplines have major contributions to make. History throws light upon the wisdom of alternative

courses of action and assists in forecasting the future; anthropology contributes to an understanding of the development of human beings and of groups; sociology aids in understanding the ways in which groups organize to accomplish social ends; psychology helps in understanding the inner man and the influences of nature and of other human beings upon the individual; geography is concerned with the relationship of man to environment and the influence of environment upon man; economics throws light on many matters relating to the material welfare of human beings; political science provides insight into the means by which groups organize themselves to exert power through the formalized channels of government.

None of the social sciences can be studied in isolation from the others. Anthropology provides us with knowledge of early history. It also deals with the organization of groups of human beings, as do sociology, social psychology, and political science. Economic geography is both economics and geography. Human geography is both sociology and geography. Sociology and psychology merge in the study of social psychology. Political economy includes a part of the subject matter of both political science and economics. Political science deals with group government as a specialized phase of sociology. The history of each of the social sciences is both history and the respective social science. I need not continue this list of inter-

relationships. Every social science is related to every other. Indeed, they are so closely related that it becomes ridiculous to attempt to treat them as separate entities in the school curriculum.

Any attempt to draw a line between the social sciences and the humanities turns out to be futile. Literature may deal with history, anthropology, sociology, geography, economics, and political science. The history of art is both history and art. A great painting may have historical significance, economic significance, sociological significance. In fact, it may have almost any kind of social significance. The same is true of music, of drama, and of poetry.

All these subjects that I have mentioned, and all the subjects in the social sciences and the humanities that I have not mentioned, are in part identical with each other and in part different from each other. Their interrelationships lie in the fact that all deal primarily with the hopes, the activities, and the accomplishments of human beings. This is the common core that permeates them all.

[At this critical period in the world's history, the greatest need of mankind is not for more scientific and technical knowledge. From the scientific and technical standpoint we already know how to provide all human beings everywhere with all the food, clothing, and shelter that they need and with all the other material goods that they can use. The fact that millions do not

have enough to meet their needs results from lack of knowledge of what constitutes a desirable organization of human beings. This knowledge can be provided through study of the social sciences. Even more fundamental than this lack of knowledge, however, is the failure to accept sound values as goals of living. I refer to basic values such as wisdom, goodness, honesty, and justice. In my opinion, no field of study has a greater contribution to make to the development of sound values than have the humanities, broadly interpreted to include all literature, all the fine arts, and philosophy.]

Often we develop school curriculums on the assumption that all the contributions to the social sciences and humanities, and particularly to literature, originated in the Western world, primarily in Great Britain and the United States. That procedure is not helpful in furthering a world society. [Where better than in our schools can we provide youth with an understanding of the contributions of all cultures to the development of civilization?] A program that provides such understanding does not require that youth learn many languages. Today the major contributions of all nations are available, or can readily be made available, in translation.

In my discussion of the place of the social sciences and the humanities in the curriculums of our schools, I do not intend to imply that such curriculums should be developed primarily through the study of subject matter

from books. [Quite the contrary! Subject matter learned from books clearly has a place, but so does the subject matter of firsthand experience.] I believe in a psychological organization of all experiences as the best method of education. John Dewey's contention that education is the organization and reorganization of experience seems to me to be sound. [Some experience is secured from books and works of art; much is secured from firsthand observation of, and participation in, community activities.] A sound curriculum must recognize the value of action programs, as well as the value of the study of books and works of art. Somewhere there must be a middle ground that offers the values secured through study of the experiences of others and the values obtained through observation of, and participation in, community activities.]

EDUCATION OF ADULTS A CRITICAL NEED

I have centered my attention in this discussion primarily upon the critical situation in which the world finds itself today and upon the education of children and youth in preparation for living in that world. The importance of the education of children and youth cannot be overstressed, yet I doubt that it is more important at the moment than the education of adults. No one can now foresee how many years of grace are left during

which we can strive to build through peaceful means a world community and a world government. Leading scientists who have been working with atomic energy and leading social scientists who have given thought to means of developing a world community and a world government seem to agree that the time remaining for the development of machinery to end war is not long—a few years at most. The development through education of the wisdom necessary to build a world community and a world government cannot wait on the education of a new generation. The adults of today must make the basic decisions that will determine the future. For this task they need wis-

dom. In order to acquire such wisdom, they need general education in the humanities and the social sciences, not scientific or technical knowledge. General education that is humanistic in its nature is at least as important for adults as for youth.]

We face today either a world community with a world government or chaos. There will be no tomorrow worth thinking about unless this nation acts quickly and wisely. Education in the humanities and the social sciences is, I believe, the best means to assist people to become wise. Such education could save civilization from disaster. I know of nothing else that can.]

WHAT ADULTS THINK OF THE GREAT BOOKS

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IT IS a part of American folklore that education is basically an activity of children. Even those who grant that adults can, or should, continue to learn usually have in mind some fairly simple program: a faithful repetition of high-school courses for those not fortunate enough to have had them in youth; the provision of training in initial or supplementary vocational skills; or the offering of courses to teach people how to repair furniture, cook, garden, or play contract bridge.

He who listens with practiced ear to the discussion of adults will discover, however, that they are genuinely perplexed about broader problems than these. They find themselves baffled and unable to think clearly about questions of personal morality; to choose right alternatives of individual or group action; or to develop a standard of values to illuminate or give structure to their ethical beliefs, their knowledge, or their appreciation. The truly practical adult educator cannot ignore these broader needs, or he will lose his best opportunity to improve society and the individuals who compose it.

Since 1939, University College, which is the adult-education division of the University of Chicago, has attempted to help mature students

achieve these broader values by providing a course in the great books of Western civilization. The theory behind this course is basically simple: he who wishes to understand some broad area of human experience or thought can best do so by going directly to the basic contributions which men have made to it. For example, a man or woman who is perplexed by the need for a personal code of ethics can best develop one by reading Plato, Aristotle, Spinoza, and the other authors who have made fresh and direct approaches to this problem and whose efforts have been sufficiently successful that their works have remained fresh through succeeding generations. Men and women who wish to have all fields illuminated can gain this end by reading a variety of sources.

Between 1939 and 1944 the course had a modest success. In each year there were from one to five sections, each with twenty to forty persons. A number of the class members came back from year to year and in various ways indicated that they were enthusiastic and had derived real values. Consequently, in the autumn of 1944 it was determined to expand the scope of the course; to draw in a larger number of persons; and, on the basis of the experience gained, to attempt to de-

velop a technique which might prove effective and useful. One of the most important determinants of success would clearly be the opinion of the mature students themselves as to the values that they had derived. Consequently it was planned, from the start, to ask the students at the close of the year to evaluate the course, indicating its strengths and weaknesses. The purpose of the present paper is to report this evaluation by the students. It will, however, be necessary first to describe the course briefly.

NATURE OF THE COURSE

Two successive series built around the reading and discussion of the great books were offered. The first one, begun during the autumn quarter, was designed to last throughout the year, and the books selected were presented so that an older book was paired with a more modern one. It was felt that the comparisons which would ensue would help to stimulate free discussion and thought. The books selected were:

Plato: *Apology, Crito*
 Thoreau: "Civil Disobedience"
 Marx: "Communist Manifesto"
 Pope Pius XI: *Quadragesimo Anno*
 Machiavelli: *The Prince*
 Hitler: *Mein Kampf*, pp. 612-51
 Aristotle: *Politics*, Book I, chaps. i and ii
 Rousseau: *The Social Contract*, chaps. i-vi
 Descartes: *Discourse of Method*
 Dewey: *Reconstruction in Philosophy*
 Plato: "Symposium," "Phaedrus"
 Freud: *History of the Psychoanalytic Movement*

Aristotle: *The Poetics*
 Maritain: *Art and Scholasticism*
 Sophocles: *Oedipus Rex*
 Shakespeare: *Macbeth*

The charge for this series was \$20 for students who were not interested in receiving academic credit for their work and \$32 (tuition for one course plus registration fee) for those who wished credit.

Because of the demand, a second series was required. It began in the winter quarter and lasted through the spring quarter. The list of books was:

Plato: *Apology, Crito*
 Plato: *Republic*
 Sophocles: *Oedipus Rex*
 Aristotle: *Ethics*, Book I
 Thucydides: *History of the Peloponnesian War*, chaps. i-vi, xvii
 Lucretius: *On the Nature of Things*, Books I-IV
 St. Thomas Aquinas: *The Governance of Rulers*
 Milton: *Areopagitica*
 Voltaire: *Candide*
 Mill: "Inaugural Address"
 Tawney: *The Acquisitive Society*

By the time the second series got under way, the practice of comparing books was abandoned in favor of a chronological arrangement. Experience had shown that, under the first system, the students were likely to be led far afield by innumerable minor similarities and differences in a pair of books and that the discussion of the likenesses and differences often obscured or ruled out the truly significant issue of what the authors of the books had actually said.

For this shorter series, \$15 was charged for noncredit students and \$17 for those who wished credit (tuition for half a course plus registration fee).

Both series were conducted in the manner of discussion seminars. The two instructors assigned to each class meeting of two hours were discussion leaders only. Their primary objective was to guide and develop the expression of thought by the student participants. Most of the nineteen leaders were members of the regular faculties of the University, but a few well-qualified outside persons were also used. There were eleven sections, varying from twenty to forty-one students, in the two series. A total of 361 persons were enrolled for both series, only eighteen of whom wished credit. Any adult who wished to take the course was permitted to do so. The attendance in most classes was good, and in several there were requests made for extra sessions. The number of students participating in discussions was usually very high.

THE STUDENTS

During the year the instructors and administrators of the course felt that they had tangible, though subjective, evidence for believing that the course was a success. A number of students individually expressed their satisfaction. Toward the end of the year, however, it was decided to secure the opinion of the students in a more systematic form. Consequently a simple questionnaire was drafted, tested,

revised, and finally sent to all the students. Slightly more than half of the students (185 of 361) returned the completed forms.

The first group of questions was not evaluative but was designed to indicate the nature of the student body. From the information provided, the following picture of the student body of this course could be drawn.

The ages of the students reporting in the questionnaires ranged from twenty to sixty-nine, the median being thirty-eight. The ages fifty, forty-five, and thirty-one were the best represented in the classes—at least numerically—and the drop after fifty was sharp. There were almost exactly twice as many women as men.

The students were asked to indicate the highest level of formal education that they had reached. Of the number who returned the questionnaire, twenty-six had had no college work at all, seventy-five had had some college work, twenty-four were college graduates, twenty-four had had some graduate work, and thirty-six had advanced or professional degrees. Among this latter number, fourteen had the LL.B. degree; seven, the M.A. degree; and three, the M.D. degree.

Housewives outnumbered the persons employed in the professions, fifty-four to fifty. Among the professional people drawn to the courses there were sixteen teachers, fourteen lawyers, six librarians, and three physicians. The group employed in some kind of clerical work was the

third largest, represented by forty-two secretaries, stenographers, auditors, and accountants. Thirty-three students were classed as "proprietors, managers, and officials"—a group which included in its broad embrace a manager of a retail liquor store, a funeral director, a hearing-aid consultant, the owner of a fertilizer business, a pharmacist, and an officer in the WAVES. There were no skilled

that he came because he wished to provide an escort for his wife. Approximately three-fourths of the persons who answered the questionnaire had clearly defined objectives which they were able to formulate. Some, of course, had more than one.

EVALUATION OF THE COURSE

The remaining questions were evaluative. The students were asked

TABLE 1
OBJECTIVES OF TAKING GREAT BOOKS COURSE FORMULATED BY 185 ADULTS

Objective	Number of Persons Indicating Objective	Objective	Number of Persons Indicating Objective
To have opportunity to discuss books under expert guidance.....	60	To achieve increased ability to read and discuss clearly.....	21
To fill in consciously felt gaps in formal education.....	46	To improve ability to understand and reason clearly.....	16
To escape from humdrum routine activities.....	33	To increase understanding of the modern world.....	7
To take part in widely publicized kind of education.....	32	To develop an integrated point of view.....	5
To establish systematic reading habits.....	24	To acquire new ideas.....	3
		To discover kinds of books classified as "great books".....	3

workers, no farmers, no laborers, and no servants among the students who filled out questionnaires.

Each student was asked the direct question: "What was your objective in registering for the great books discussion course?" No set of possible objectives was formulated; the burden for doing so rested on the respondent.

The objectives professed by the 185 persons answering fell roughly into thirteen categories, ten of which are represented in Table 1. The first seven of these assume some prominence statistically. One frank soul admitted

to state their frank opinions concerning the extent to which their objectives had been reached, the quality of the instruction, the value of the books read and discussed, and ways to improve the course.

Those who formulated definite objectives were asked to indicate how well their aims had been achieved. The answers were: completely, 79; fairly well, 58; to a modest extent, 21; and not at all, 3. Of the 24 persons in the last two categories, 3 felt that the fault lay in the course itself, but 21 believed that they themselves were

chiefly responsible. Four typical comments were:

Any such objective is only achieved if one puts the necessary time and concentration upon it; and when I have done so, I have been rewarded. The class discussions have been at times very fruitful; at times, uninspiring; but they have always helped me to sort out my own reactions.

After about three sessions I became convinced that my reading had been satisfactory—and dropped the course.

I think I read better—that is, I analyze books more than I did before—and so get more out of them. This has slowed down my reading. I read nothing but the Great Books now.

Every one of the objectives I have listed above has been well achieved. The course itself, which at first hearing was anticipated as being a bit formidable, turned out surprisingly enough to be one of the most enjoyable discussion classes I have ever attended. The informality of the atmosphere, the free exchange of ideas and opinions, the humor and wit offered, while at the same time the realization of a serious evaluation of the book, made the course such a worthwhile one.

The students were then asked to state their opinions of the instructors and of the books read. Of the 172 students who expressed themselves definitely on the quality of their instructors or leaders, 151 were satisfied with both; 13 liked one of their leaders but saw weaknesses in the other; and 8 students found both leaders unqualified for their tasks. Some typical comments were:

The instructors are very familiar with the readings, and well prepared to provoke thinking and class participation. I enjoy

the ready wit, the humor, the contemporary quality of the discussions.

If you mean "Did the leaders keep the ball rolling?" the answer is: "They did, and cleverly." If you mean "Did they draw us out?" the answer is: "They found thoughts in my mind that I didn't know were there." If you mean "Do I like the Socratic Method?" the answer is: "I do."

Mr. X doesn't meet with my approval, as he seems more interested in displaying his superior knowledge than in helping the class in its mental struggles.

We have all enjoyed Mr. A and Mr. B's leadership of the class very much. It seemed to us that they were an excellent team—with just the right contrast for each other. We liked the way they tactfully led us away from long-winded personal opinions or digressions and kept us to the point (when it was humanly possible!). Educated in the traditions of class lectures, we found it irritating at first that they didn't give us more of their own interpretations of the work in question. After the first time or two, we liked their methods wholeheartedly, and have nothing but praise for both of them. We liked particularly their enthusiasm and their willingness to go on discussing with us during intermissions and after class.

The choice of books for the classes was completely satisfactory to 104 students; 50 expressed interest in most of the books but felt that at least one might well have been omitted from the lists; 6 definitely disapproved of the lists as a whole; and only 5 thought themselves incapable of making a judgment on the matter. The following comment reflects the typical point of view:

I'm glad that many of them were a "must," otherwise the titles might have discouraged me. Every book we've read so far

has had something to offer and, if I had to plod a bit through some of them, I found that the time thus spent proved later worth while. Much of the classical literature was as interesting and fascinating as much of our modern prose. It was good to come into contact with some of the more important ideas of important men in the history of philosophy.

The students were then asked "Can you suggest any ways to improve the course?" In all, 37 suggestions were offered. The largest number of these were concerned with the desirability of more guidance and direction by the instructors. Thirty students wished the instructors to make an organized presentation of the book to be read by the class, to tell something of its historical setting, its literary history, and in general enable the students to acquire some perspective before reading the book. A most eloquent plea for assistance of this kind was made by the student who wrote:

Every once in a while there appears in the course of the discussion a set of directly opposing ideas that have more or less run through the history of Western culture. While I heartily agree with the emphasis on not answering questions, I think a few minutes could well be devoted to tracing quickly how this conflict has run through intellectual history, the important proponents of each side, etc. Moreover, I have seen a class flounder badly for a long time just for lack of a few facts (I with them), when the information lacking has definitely been fact, not opinion. That the information wasn't given makes this business of not answering questions too much of a good thing. . . . I found the discussion of Thucydides highly unsatisfactory. After our class, with some anguish, threw out the "great man" theory of history, it had little idea of what was left. To tell the

class what other views have been proposed, and by whom, I think would stimulate a definite interest, not a vague feeling that "I must look this up some time." Unfortunately . . . we are not the great thinkers. Good teaching is more than the ability to ask the right questions. For not too original thinkers like myself, one must point the way more definitely.

Guidance to subsequent reading materials in line with the great books courses was suggested by thirty-two students. Nineteen individuals agreed that it was incumbent upon the instructor to see that the discussions among the students remained fruitful, did not stall over minor points, and did not digress too far from the substance of the books. Eighteen students wished for a greater expression of opinion on the part of instructors, and eleven wished that reading lists could be made available for use in conjunction with the current reading of a great book to elucidate and enrich their study and discussions.

Smaller classes were advocated by fourteen students, thirteen would have liked to spend more time on one assignment, and ten felt that some device was necessary for drawing more members of the class into discussions. Other miscellaneous suggestions were that a more homogeneous grouping of students be arranged, that the instructors should "rotate" among sections, and that smoking in the classroom should be discouraged.

In answer to a direct question whether or not they intended to enrol again in the great books courses,

151 of the students who reported said "Yes"; 12 students gave an unqualified "No"; and 15 were undecided. The remaining students did not answer the question. The earnestness of this interest is shown by the fact that, at the start of the autumn quarter of 1945, 112 students did re-enrol to take a second year of instruction. A number of others formed voluntary groups to read and discuss the books. Also during the spring and summer, the University had trained a number of librarians, teachers, and neighborhood leaders who formed thirty-four community groups meeting in Chicago and its suburbs. Many of those who had been students at University College joined these neighborhood groups.

In order to have some single index of the success of the course, a rating scale was developed with the following seven points:

1. The person is enthusiastic about the great books course. He thinks it is excellent and sees nothing wrong with it.
2. The person feels that the great books course is worth while for the most part but does see at least one thing that he would like to have changed.
3. The person seems to be fairly evenly divided in judgment about the great books course, thinking that its good points are pretty much balanced by its faults.
4. The person is unfavorably impressed by the great books course as a whole but does think that it contains at least one good point.
5. The person is completely opposed to the great books course and has nothing to say in its favor.

OA. The information contained on the questionnaire is not adequate to permit a judgment concerning the person's opinion of the program. The person, however, does indicate that he wishes to take the great books course next year.

OB. The information contained on the questionnaire is not adequate to permit a judgment concerning the person's opinion of the program. He does indicate, however, that he is not going to take the great books course next year.

Each of the 185 questionnaires was read and rated independently by five judges. In most cases, all the judges concurred in their ratings; in cases of disagreement the average was taken. The results are shown in Table 2.

CONCLUSIONS

The first and most direct conclusion to which the results of the questionnaire led is that the great books course was a success in the minds of its students. It was an activity which had meaning and vitality to them. The additional judgments of the administrators and instructors, while subjective, would tend to bear out this conclusion. There are, however, certain other tangible evidences. In the autumn of 1945 the great books course at University College had almost 600 registrants as compared with 170 at the same time the previous year. This fact was true despite an increase of one-third in tuition. The neighborhood classes stimulated and sponsored by University College enrolled almost 1,300 people. Both sets of

classes have long waiting lists of persons who wish to be informed when new sections are started.

A second notable conclusion is the maturity of the responses given by the students. Enough of their comments have been included to show how different their statements are from those which would be given by children or adolescents. "The great books course has meaning to these

structors, and a room which was not ideally suited to the purpose. These matters, when brought to the attention of the staff, could be quickly remedied. By far the largest number of comments, however, grew from the fact that the students have developed definite conceptions and convictions from their years of experience. So positive and direct an endeavor as the great books course would inevitably

TABLE 2
RATINGS GIVEN TO OPINIONS SUPPLIED BY 185 ADULT STUDENTS ON EVALUATIVE
QUESTIONNAIRE CONCERNING GREAT BOOKS COURSE

Rating	Frequency of Rating	Rating	Frequency of Rating
1. Enthusiastic about course.....	34	course contains at least one good point.....	4
2. Thinks course worth while but would like at least one thing changed.....	124	5. Completely opposed to course	1
3. Considers good points balanced by faults.....	17	OA. Inadequate information: re- spondent will re-enrol.....	4
4. Unfavorably impressed but thinks		OB. Inadequate information: re- spondent will not re-enrol.....	1

people, not as a way of getting ready for life, but as a way of integrating present life and making it seem clearer and more significant.

This maturity is evidenced in another way: the students are far from uncritical. As the results of the application of the rating scale show, most of the respondents have at least one adverse comment to make, even though they agree that the course as a whole is worth while. To some extent these comments grow from actual and unmistakable faults in the course: failure to have enough books in wartime, one or two inexperienced in-

run counter to these opinions in a way which would be impossible in the case of children or adolescents.

Take, for example, the chief suggestion for improvement, which was, in substance, that the instructors should do some lecturing. Everything in the experience of the adults has led them to take lecturing as the natural form of instruction. A kind of teaching which puts the entire burden on the student in order to make him active and make him develop his own learning was foreign to their experience. The staff members have given serious thought to this question, since

in many instances the discussion method ran counter to their own established practices. They have concluded that, while care should be taken not to allow the students to flounder in unimportant matters, the method of the direct question and of group discussion is the best.

One serious drawback in the course was that it drew only from among the occupations classified as being rather high in the economic scale. It is true that this same phenomenon occurs in any general program, since the people in these occupations tend to have had advantages of previous education which make them respond more readily. Nonetheless, the tuition charge which the University must make to support the course is unquestionably a barrier. One of the chief reasons for the development of the neighborhood

classes was to attempt to remedy this difficulty.

There is no implication that the University considers that it now has a program which is completely crystalized and in which no improvement can be made. The success of the course has rather caused the instructional staff to conclude that it must find ways to improve its methods of teaching. To a real teacher, it is a reward and a challenge to have most of his students adopt the attitude expressed by one of these class members:

I leave each class session feeling mentally aroused and eager for further reading. And the informal discussions and comparisons of opinions helped me a great deal. They were a gauge by which I would judge whether I'd gotten all I should have from my reading. Also, they inspired me to not only *read* books, but to *think* about them, in relation to the past, the present, and myself.

READING—LEARNING'S MOST ESSENTIAL TOOL

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A RECENT survey of the reading habits of adults from practically all walks of life reveals the startling fact that only about 10 per cent of our adult population read anything of social or cultural value. This finding is a rather serious reflection on the teaching of the past generation, inasmuch as nearly all these people are graduates of some public school. Many of them attribute their reading aversion to the fact that, while they were in school, they were forced to read many things that they neither understood nor enjoyed. If this be true, then something must be done to correct this mistake. Of course not all people can learn to read effectively, but certainly more than 10 per cent of our population can be taught to read with understanding. The problem is one that merits consideration.

ART OF READING

Persons who regard reading as a simple skill to be mastered in the elementary school fail to interpret the true meaning of the word "reading." Reading is a highly complex art, which, like most artistic achievements, requires constant growth and involves many levels of proficiency.

Mastery of the fundamental skills is only a minor part of the process of learning to read. Learning to *interpret* what is read is the valuable skill to be acquired. Indeed, the only virtue in reading, as such, is reflective action. Unless students can be taught to think about and react to what they read, there is no merit in teaching them to read. Readers must not only understand what they read but must enjoy the experience of reading, or no permanent reading habits will be established. This reading ability can be acquired only through competent guidance in reading techniques throughout secondary-school levels, as well as in elementary school.

READING AT SECONDARY-SCHOOL LEVEL

The increase in vocabulary burden from elementary-school to secondary-school level is tremendous and should be as carefully and gradually bridged as is the step from primary to intermediate level. That this is not always done accounts for a large share of failures in content subjects. Of course the level of difficulty at which a person can read is limited by his general ability to clarify word meanings, but

much which should have and could have been done in the building of adequate vocabulary concepts on upper-grade levels has been left undone. It is obvious that the reading of a sentence is inadequate without a deep understanding of the meanings of the words used in it and that an extensive and clearly understood vocabulary is as essential to comprehensive reading as are hands to mechanical drawing. It follows, therefore, that study habits which are entirely adequate in elementary school may suddenly lose their effectiveness when confronted with the unfamiliar vocabularies found in such high-school subjects as biology, chemistry, etc.

An interesting study in the field of background vocabulary for history is reported by Luella Cole Pressey.¹ A test of around 310 items was given to about 11,000 students in Grades IV, VI, VIII, X, and XII. An analysis of the test results showed a decrease in the rate of progress in vocabulary growth from Grade VI to Grade XII. Pressey attributes this decrease in progress to a difference in attitude toward the reading problem. Elementary-school teachers, she feels, assume the attitude that many words are not understood and, therefore, make a specific effort to teach them.

¹ Luella Cole Pressey, "A Study in the Learning of the Fundamental Special Vocabulary of History from the Fourth through the Twelfth Grades," in T. L. Kelley and A. C. Krey, *Tests and Measurements in the Social Sciences*, pp. 155-218. Report of the Commission on the Social Studies of the American Historical Association. New York: Charles Scribner's Sons, 1934.

High-school teachers tend to ignore the problem, taking it for granted that reading is a skill to be mastered in the elementary-school grades.

"When will I find time to teach my subject if I must first teach my classes to read?" is a familiar wail of many high-school teachers. Either they do not understand the processes of learning, or they mistakenly refuse to accept the responsibility of helping children to master learning's most essential tool. According to Bartlett, "The teacher who fails to teach the particular reading skills needful for his particular subject is as derelict in his duty as the one who fails to teach the subject matter itself."²

READING-READINESS PROGRAMS

True, it may take weeks to familiarize a class with the vocabulary necessary to the study of some high-school subjects—biology, for example. However, if at the end of the training period the students have acquired a clear understanding of the meaning of the words that they will be expected to read and to use in studying the subject, then there is little doubt that the subject matter itself can be taught more effectively in less than half the time that would be necessary without this preparation.

By way of illustration, a list of words to be defined was given to some sixth-grade students of better-than-average intelligence. Some of the

² Hall Bartlett, "Some Remedial Reading Procedures in the Social Studies," *Social Education*, III (October, 1939), 458.

definitions given by the students follow:

STAG.—“You take a knife or a needle and put into your arm.”

HENCE.—“Chickens that lay eggs.”

MOSS-COVERED HILLS.—“I don't know. Moss are things you get in woolen clothes.”

MINCED.—“A kind of candy.”

LARVAE.—“Kind of soap.”

WRENCHES.—“Places where cowboys live.”

NATURAL RESOURCES.—“Worms and things that are in the ground.”

These definitions illustrate the bewilderment and confusion which can exist in the minds of children when their vocabulary-experience backgrounds are inadequate.

Because of the serious vocabulary burden included in high-school subjects, it would seem logical to expect that each subject teacher use a definite reading-readiness program designed to acquaint the class with the particular vocabulary necessary to understand the subject. Every high-school teacher should be acquainted with methods and techniques by which reading skills unique to particular subjects can be acquired. It is not to be supposed that visual aids, dramatizations, excursions, card files, word charts, etc., are learning devices for the use of elementary-school teachers exclusively. The only essential difference between teaching reading techniques in elementary and secondary schools lies in the type of material and the level of interest.

EMOTIONAL DIFFICULTIES

For the past few years the writer has been associated with numerous

children who have reading disabilities. The problems encountered are not so often mechanical in nature as they are emotional: inferiority complexes, defeatist attitudes, lack of interest, vague vocabulary concepts, etc. Either the pressure which has been brought to bear upon these children has been inappropriate to their maturity level and has resulted both in failure to accomplish what the school demands and in frustration of the interests that the children brought to school with them, or the work was presented so fast that they became hopelessly involved in meaningless activity. At any rate, reading has become a difficult task and, what is even worse, a distasteful one. The first job in teaching these children to read is one of rehabilitation—trying to put them at emotional ease, convincing them that they are not “stupid,” that they can learn to read and to enjoy stories as other children do. This job is not easy. Emotional disturbances are difficult to trace and even more difficult to alleviate.

There are a great many factors which lead to emotional disturbances in children. Pressure by the teacher is undoubtedly one of the leading factors to be considered, especially in its relation to the establishment of good reading habits. Teacher pressure is sometimes caused by administrative pressure, overcrowded classrooms, unreasonably heavy teaching loads, and extensive academic requirements. Academic requirements have reached such high proportions in the past few

years that teachers have had a tendency to demand quantitative rather than qualitative results, and much of the reading which is done by the students is, therefore, sketchy and ineffective. They learn to skim through long, unmotivated, uninteresting assignments for facts which enable them to "get by," but they do not achieve much actual learning because there is no need for intensive reading or reflective action. This type of work results in disorganized learning patterns and creates a permanent aversion to reading.

FACTORS BASIC TO EFFECTIVE READING

There are certain factors which are basic to effective reading. Mechanical skills, if overemphasized, can be detrimental to the process of learning to read. Acute awareness of phonetic elements may actually hinder the synthesis of unfamiliar words. The somewhat common practice of finding familiar one-syllable words in unfamiliar words of two or more syllables is not always a good practice. Finding "pear" in "disappear," "crow" in "crowded," "pat" in "patience," or "prop" in "proportion" will in no way aid a child in the process of blending these words together. Overemphasis on mechanical skills also slows the rate of reading—and often results in word-calling—a serious handicap in establishing the essential abilities of phrasing properly and sensing sentences. Some phonetic knowledge is helpful, but rules are of little value

in blending unfamiliar, unphonetic words, such as "beautiful," "answer," "neighbor," "through," "pierced," "rhythmic," "young." These words will be read easily only after children have learned to read with understanding and keen anticipation. Rules of silentness, variability, effect of syllabic division and accent on sound are seldom, if ever, used by capable readers. Repetitions, omissions, substitutions, confusions, improper phrasing, and inadequate attention to punctuation are faulty reading habits which disappear as children develop in their ability to interpret and to enjoy what they read. The study of root words, prefixes, suffixes, etymology, and the relation of English words to those of other languages is beyond the comprehension level of elementary-school children and merely adds to their confusion and dislike of the subject. This work must be introduced in high school when children are more mature mentally.

Permanent reading habits will never be acquired by assigning long, unmotivated, uninteresting units to be read either at home or in study halls, as the student may wish. Reading assignments should be as specific and as well motivated, and the vocabulary content as clearly understood, in high school as they are in elementary school. The work should also be as carefully supervised.

Much of the fatigue and the irritation which teachers experience in the classroom comes from a futile attempt to make children read material that

they do not understand or enjoy. The behavior patterns of children are exactly the same as those of adults. They do that which experience has taught them to be most satisfactory and expedient. To get children to read material of any value, therefore, the experience must be satisfying and purposive. Learning must be associated with pleasant emotional satisfaction if it is to become permanently effective.

CONCLUSION

Children will not learn to read simply because teachers say they must. They will read only when they are properly conditioned to read; they will read voluntarily only that material which has meaning to them. The

quality of their reading will depend on their vocabulary concepts and their experience background. The responsibility for the building of this reading foundation rests with teachers—teachers at all grade levels, teachers of science, mathematics, literature, music, and art. They must see to it that their students continue to grow in reading proficiency as each new level of reading difficulty is encountered. High-school teachers must recognize and *accept* the fact that various subjects require the use of reading skills unique to the subjects, and they must provide the instruction necessary to insure deep and meaningful understanding of the reading material which is related to the subject matter that they teach.

THE ANALYSIS OF EDUCATIONAL PROGRAMS

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THIS article presents a check list of questions or principles which may be useful in diagnosing and analyzing proposals for educational innovations. By "general education" is meant education which is designed to develop better citizens or more worthwhile people as distinguished from technical education which is oriented primarily toward inculcating some segmental, specialized skill.

UNDERLYING ASSUMPTION

One underlying general assumption may be stated before introducing specific principles: *education happens to and through people*. In other words, education is a process of social interaction, carried on by specific personalities, operating within a specific cultural and physical environment. Accordingly a particular program of education which is of great value to students of a given type being taught by teachers of a particular sort may be quite useless for another group of students and teachers. For example, a general course in social science at the University of Puerto Rico might be profitably organized so that the student learns a good deal about the sugar economy in the Caribbean; it would be foolish to offer the same

course to beginning students at the University of Maryland.

During recent years several educational schemes originating in one center or with one group, to whose needs they may have been related, have been adopted by other groups for which they were probably unsuited. For example, one branch of what is loosely called "progressive education" was developed by and for typical upper- or middle-class metropolitan North American pupils. These pupils come from child-centered homes, where there is plenty of room and space, plenty of discipline of a certain sort, and an absence of discipline of another type. It is difficult, for example, to imagine that the Shady Hill way of doing things would be useful and acceptable in a typical mountain school in Kentucky—or, for that matter, in a school in a workmen's section of a manufacturing city. Most pupils at Shady Hill can discern no significant differences in social class and position between their teachers and their parents. Consequently Shady Hill can employ a set of teaching methods which typical public schools cannot use because in these schools the difference in class and position between parents and

teachers is evident. Hence a different system of social interrelationships must be taken as a starting-point.

A second example is the college program originating at the University of Chicago. It is clear, for instance, that Chicago Freshmen and Florida Freshmen are different in such matters as average family income, parental occupation, the proportion of students who complete a four-year curriculum, size of home community, and so on. Presumably they differ also in such matters as type of high-school training, scientific attitude, and viewpoint about patriotism and religion. Because of these differences, their needs and perceptions are not the same.

At the University of Puerto Rico, where the Chicago system is being introduced, I was responsible for trying to organize a general course in social science. On the basis of my experience at the University of Chicago and elsewhere in the United States, I made a number of assumptions about philosophic viewpoint, work habits, and previous preparation which simply were not valid for Puerto Rico. It should be emphasized that this is not in any sense criticism of the sort which members of a dominant group often make of a minority people; the point is merely that the profile of Puerto Rican strengths, weaknesses, and needs is different from the profile for a North American group. Puerto Rico is, after all, a Hispanic-Caribbean, one-crop, colonial, partially bilingual area. For example, I feel

reasonably sure that Puerto Rico students are quicker to perceive semantic problems than are their continental counterparts. The treatment of hygienic problems in Puerto Rico should be different from that at Chicago, not only because the diseases of a marine tropical zone are not the same as those of the temperate zone, but also because the cultural obstacles to an adequate public-health program in Puerto Rico are technical, whereas in Chicago they are political.¹

The issue may be stated more systematically. A culture trait acquires its significance from the culture pattern of which it is a part. Educational imitators can borrow a trait or a group of traits; they cannot borrow a whole pattern of behavior. Accordingly the meaning and effectiveness of a curriculum or method of teaching adopted can be judged only in terms of the pattern into which it is introduced. The Chicago New Plan, then, at the University of Puerto Rico—or, for that matter, at the University of Florida or Talladega College—has a significance different from its significance at Chicago.² The problem is

¹ I have taken this formulation from Milton Mayer, who pointed out that Puerto Rico has had sewage-disposal systems because of a shortage of good engineers, while Chicago has had sewage-disposal systems because of a shortage of good politicians.

² This statement does not mean that it may not be equally or more useful. A good case can be made for the point that the Talladega adaptation of the New Plan provides a better general education (as defined in the first paragraph of this article) in Talladega than the original plan does at Chicago.

made more difficult because of the unfortunate fact that in many, perhaps in most, cases the important differences in culture patterns between one institution and another are simply not evident to the participants; for the crucial factors in human interrelationships and reactions are often those which everybody takes for granted.

SUITABLE DIAGNOSTIC TECHNIQUES

It cannot, then, be assumed without careful sociological analysis that a curriculum or method of academic organization is as useful in one place as in another. But fortunately, at least within the generally accepted values of Western civilization, the same diagnostic techniques may be utilized. In other words, there are certain questions concerning sociological and administrative points which may be asked in quite dissimilar situations and which will yield useful answers. However, precisely because the questions are the same, the answers will be different because the situations are different.

The questions listed below may prove irrelevant or immaterial in a particular case; but it is believed that they are of sufficiently general application to be worth asking. Similarly, one or another question may raise problems about which an educational planner or administrator can do nothing in view of the circumstances with which he is confronted; and still, when all the factors are balanced, the program which he is sponsoring may

seem the best possible, even if not the best imaginable. This predicament in no sense indicates weakness or stupidity; the *calculated* taking of risks and assuming of responsibilities for imperfect performance is part of wise strategy in any field. But a failure to undertake a preliminary analysis of the sort suggested by these questions, with a view to considering alternatives or possible revisions, should ordinarily be construed as an evidence of shortsightedness.

There is some overlapping of the questions suggested below, which arises from the necessity of letting practical utility rather than theoretical rigor determine the choice of formulations. In the advanced stage of a science there is, presumably, no contradiction between a practical and a theoretical approach to a problem, but it would be misleading to pretend that social dynamics has become an advanced science. Accordingly it has proved impossible to establish any direct relation between theorems about social change and the concrete problems with which we are here concerned.

It should also be noted that the list of principles here put forth is *a* list rather than *the* list. For some time, for instance, I thought of adding another principle, that of "community awareness," described by the question: "Is the program so organized that the students are envisaged as participants in a social process, playing a series of defined roles?" Ultimately I decided that this problem

was covered sufficiently in discussion of other principles: the decision to discard this principle and retain the principle of applicability, which is implied by Principles I and VI, is defensible only on intuitive grounds.

I. PRINCIPLE OF ADEQUATE LEVEL OF SPECIFICATION

How is the program going where?
In other words, what is the presumptive relationship between purposes and methods?

Evidently this principle demands a statement of purposes and methods, precise enough to enable competent persons to agree in given circumstances on what the program implies in those circumstances. Broad, general statements about objectives usually carry such different meanings to different people that the persons are likely to try to implement the statements in unrelated or even contradictory ways. The kind of precision needed is, of course, the precision of a textbook in strategy rather than of a guidebook to a cathedral town.

Indeed, in principle, no educational program should specify in a rigid fashion what the curriculum should contain or how the academic community should comport itself; for the best method of attaining given objectives is sure to vary with time and place and personality. The point may be clarified by analogy. The equipment and the direction best suited for reaching New York from Buenos Aires are not the equipment and the direction best suited for reaching

New York from Yonkers; but general rules for finding out how to get from Yonkers or Buenos Aires or from any other place to New York could be formulated. Such general rules would be valueless, however, unless they were actually applicable to the problem of how to get to New York.

The problem in this case is partly one of logical analysis. What, in fact, in the situation confronted by the planners of a program do their general statements imply? But as students of political theory long ago discovered, it is absurd to make such a logical analysis without proceeding to a sociological analysis. Statements of purpose and policy always contain, and are influenced by, intellectual fashions; the analyst has to disentangle what is educationally significant from what is, in the currently accepted intellectual universe of discourse, appropriate. Political theorists make Marx and Machiavelli and Hamilton more comprehensible by such a process, and a similar process would undoubtedly illuminate educational theory.

The essential purpose of the analysis is to separate the real purposes of the planners from their professed purposes. Conceivably Pareto's well-known distinction between residues and derivations might have some analytic value, and modern literary criticism and the German post-Marxist controversy, with their emphasis on studying the social position and role of writers, would surely be helpful.

Most college catalogues and essays on education concern themselves at some point with "character-building," etc. This fact suggests a consideration which is of vital importance: adequate specification of the aims and objectives of education does not necessarily need to be limited to the content of the present conventional curriculum. If a statement of policy declares that an institution is devoted to producing good citizens and that extra-curriculum activities do as much to produce good citizenship as does classroom work, the question naturally arises: Why are extra-curriculum activities to be regarded as a residual category? Is it desirable for the institution to take some responsibility for the guidance and direction of such activities? Is a laissez faire policy toward them the best way to obtain desired results?

In other words, it is believed that a statement of objectives should ultimately be related to a formulation of the characteristics of a good citizen or virtuous man and that then the question should be explicitly asked: What aspects of good citizenship or virtue can the particular program with which we are concerned, the particular institution for which we are responsible, do most to develop? In many cases, no doubt, the conclusion will be that the academic material now emphasized by schools and colleges is the major possible contribution, but the issue is one which needs much more careful analysis than it ordinarily receives.

II-A. PRINCIPLE OF STUDENT ACCEPTABILITY

Does the program start with what the students are able and willing to perceive? That is, does it take into account the factors of culture and group organization?

To try to teach Tennyson's *Idylls of the King* to relatively unprepared Puerto Rican or, for that matter, New York high-school students is a flagrant violation of this principle which is frequently encountered. The question is not one of student interest. An eighth-grade program involving six months of study of the Normandy of 1066 may fascinate pupils and teacher, but it is not a significant example of learning by doing unless, somehow, it has led to the acquisition of skills which the pupils can practice, with value to themselves and others, in the environment in which they actually live.

The teacher's function is not entertainment; it is something deeper. What we know about learning and cultural diffusion strongly indicates that students are not likely to gain much from material which does not appear relevant to them. How can we know what will seem relevant? The culture of the students, that is, the assumptions and ways of life which seem natural to them, limit the possibilities open to those who would educate them. Similarly the culture of the students makes them more likely to respond favorably to some kinds of programs than to others. It is improbable that a group

of fifteen-year-olds could be abruptly transferred from a Nazi school to the New York City system with advantage to anyone. Students accustomed to "tough" teaching will not know how to react to sympathetic, considerate instruction. An individual student transferred from one type of school to another can find models for imitation among his classmates; a group of students will tend to persevere in habits which they have already formed.

It is important to think about the culture of a particular student group rather than about "Japanese culture" or "British culture"; for the culture of a nation tends to be an abstraction as compared with the concrete reality of the customary patterns of behavior of a particular primary group. Kipling in *Stalky & Co.* has a story of how a "jelly-bellied flag-flapper" outraged the virginal patriotism of military-school students. Yet there were and probably still are many English schools where the speech might have been favorably received. We have become sufficiently accustomed to the notion of class differentiation to realize that, for example, the culture of Groton or Exeter or St. George's is very different from that of high schools in East Boston or Barre, Vermont; but it may well be that there are profound differences between the folkways and mores of Exeter and those of St. George's, even though they recruit from much the same social class. A really effective educational program will lead the teacher to

familiarize himself with the subculture of the particular school where he is stationed and to become articulately aware of its power and directives.

II-B. PRINCIPLE OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES

Does the program permit and encourage the teacher to take account of individual differences?

Recent educational theory has devoted much attention to the significance of individual differences. However, the general tendency has been to jump directly from the objectives of the program to the individual student, with only an intuitive awareness, if that, of the cultural factors which make interpretation of the student's individuality meaningful. Accordingly it is believed that individual differences should be considered along with, or subsequent to, the analysis of the cultural environment. That is, behavior which may be highly eccentric and antisocial when manifested by a "well-disciplined" child at an ordinary upper-class elementary school in a provincial city, may have an entirely different significance in the case of a child brought up in a New York slum or one coming from a family of the intellectually élite.

III-A. PRINCIPLE OF STUDENT INCENTIVES AND III-B. PRINCIPLE OF EVALUATION

Does the program take account of student incentives to learning and effort?

Does the program involve a system of

evaluation which will facilitate the type of learning desired?

Students ordinarily do not learn for the reasons which their elders and betters think should encourage them to learn. Pure love of learning, pure desire to be a good citizen, and the like are rare characteristics. Consequently any program of education must be so organized as to appeal to the actual motives of students. In the most general terms, students, like other people, wish to experience immediate gratifications. Since education is, for the most part, designed to benefit its recipients *in the future*, every educational program must award interim gratifications if it is to survive. If these gratifications are received through the curriculum, the so-called "law of the primacy of means over ends" tends to operate; students regard passing the course or obtaining the information in the course as an end in itself to which everything else is secondary. More frequently perhaps, in the typical American college and secondary school, the curriculum provides no substantial gratifications, and consequently these are sought in extra-curriculum activities of some sort.

Any program in which a group of teachers seriously believes can supply gratifications to some students regardless of its content, because among such teachers will be found interesting, vivid personalities—men and women who can communicate a sense that what is being done is genuinely worth while. This ability is desirable, but it

is not sufficient because, in the first place, these teachers may be wholly or partly mistaken. They may fail to cover adequately skills or subjects of the utmost importance—and, in our culture at least, a student tends to scorn those subjects which he has neglected, particularly when he feels that he has learned all the really essential things. Also, those who are removed either in time or distance from the originators of a program tend to routinize and institutionalize procedures and methods. Small colleges like St. John's or Bennington may enrich the lives of most of those who attend them, but this is not any proof at all that the St. John's or Bennington approach is valid or valuable for other colleges in which the teachers may lack the consecrated spirit possessed by the staffs of these two pioneering institutions.

The practical problem is: How can students receive immediate gratification by doing things which are at the same time educational? Such constructs as Thomas' four wishes³ may be useful to the administrator in suggesting ways and means of devising and revising his program.

In American society, at least, it would seem to be true that the mark earned involves the most significant type of gratification. Despite the customary contempt of teachers for mark-hunting, there is a very real and reasonable basis for marks—just the same basis as that underlying the

³ William I. Thomas, *The Unadjusted Girl*, pp. 4-40. Boston: Little, Brown & Co., 1923.

teacher's desire to know how his superiors evaluate his work. In one way or another, marks aid the individual to define both his status and his achievements, and they reassure him as to his security.

Marks are based on testing. Even where the conventional type of examination has been abolished, the teacher, through theme or recitation, still tests. Students who are status-conscious or achievement-conscious devote much of their time and energy to doing well or "well enough" on the tests. Therefore, what they learn from their courses is shaped by their guesses about what will aid them in the tests. It would be interesting to examine the origin of teachers' attitudes toward mark-hunting. In part, no doubt, it arises from the teachers' belief that examinations ordinarily do not measure very much; but this belief exists simply because most teachers are unfamiliar with methods of constructing examinations—a skill which can be learned as well as any other. In part, too, it may trace back to the aristocratic background of modern education. A "gentleman's C" was a way of saying that aristocrats did not have to compete for achieved status, since they already possessed ascribed status. But, as our society is becoming increasingly competitive and, consequently, examinations and degrees are becoming increasingly important, there are fewer and fewer persons who can afford not to compete. The work of the Board of Examinations at the University of Chicago is, so far as the

writer knows, the most significant in the field of testing; but there is certainly much which students of public opinion, administrative analysis, personnel policy, the sociology of knowledge, and semantics (semiotic) can contribute to the development of still better examining methods.

IV. PRINCIPLE OF FACULTY INCENTIVES

What do the faculty and administration get out of the program?

Teachers and administrators, like students, are people. They also tend to substitute immediate gratifications and interests for the long-range values which they ostensibly serve. The specific sources of gratification are promotions, status, sociability, and, perhaps, salaries. How can these be related to behavior which maximizes the educational opportunities provided for the students? Most discussion of promotion systems, for example, is carried on without reference to the purpose of the institution. Most educators deplore the fact that research, or at least the possession of the Ph.D., is the most important criterion in appointing teachers; but hardly anyone does anything about it. Clearly it is not sufficient to award prizes to, or to promote, the "best" teachers without some clear, objective specification as to what constitutes good teaching; since, rightly or wrongly, an intuitive judgment by an administrator about good teaching will be rejected, on the basis of personal or political considerations, by those who

do not profit from it. In the long run, the introduction of educational analysts, as suggested under Principle VII, may help. More immediately teachers might be rewarded if they undertook research in relating educational problems to philosophy and the social sciences, with a view to increasing the effectiveness of their own work. The development of the program suggested under Principle V, that is, promotion of community awareness of the differences between good teaching and bad teaching, might also be useful, but it is far easier to suggest this development than to do much of value about it.

V. PRINCIPLE OF COMMUNITY TOLERANCE AND SUPPORT

How can the community be persuaded to accept and encourage the program?

The administration is, obviously, faced with a public-relations problem whenever any serious change is made in educational policies. Accordingly an analysis of the community with which one has to deal, its expectations and its preferences, is a necessary part of any educational reform. Since the community changes, it is probably also necessary for an institution which tries to remain unchanging to make such an analysis periodically.

It may be discovered that certain desired educational programs are impossible because of community response. Obviously, recent dictatorships would not tolerate the proposals of either Hutchins or Dewey, for example. There is good reason for sus-

pecting that some suggestions for the re-education of Germany would be ineffectual because of the reaction of parents to the program. In the United States, the preferences of parents, potential employers, possible donors, and other groups limit the possibility of educational reform.

Even beyond these fairly evident situations, there are many cases where community understanding and support are important—especially understanding and support by the particular community or communities which are directly related to the institution involved. The president of Harvard, for instance, can usually disregard what Wards 1 through 5 of Cambridge think of the college and its works; but there are many interested alumni, wealthy philanthropists, and the like, whose good opinion is of great importance to him. Similarly the director of a trade-union educational program needs the support of members of the union and the toleration of legal authorities, and he will be helped by the co-operation of school people, employers, and officials of other unions.

Of course, in some cases it is simply "good opinion" in the narrow sense which is of importance. That is, the only requisite is that people think favorably of the institution, whether or not they understand what it is trying to do. In other circumstances a definite comprehension of the educational program is valuable. For example, many programs disappear from an institution when the president

or the superintendent who inaugurated them leaves. If the board of trustees or the institution's public really understood the purposes of the program, they would probably select a successor who would carry it on. Also, parents who understand what a school is trying to do can often facilitate its endeavors. A trade-union educational program or any venture in adult education has a much better chance of success when the husbands and wives of the students see what the program attempts to accomplish and why. The reasons why potential employers should know the objectives toward which the school is working are evident enough.

The administrator, then, should always be asking: How should the program be interpreted, to whom, and why?

VI. PRINCIPLE OF APPLICABILITY

*Will the students who receive the kind of education specified in the statement of objectives be able to apply what they learn in an imperfect world?*⁴

This principle is, of course, closely related to Principle I (Adequate Level of Specification), but in our culture it demands separate emphasis because there is a frequent tendency to state ideal objectives which, in the nature of the situation, cannot be realized. Educational institutions

often prepare students for an imaginary world by teaching them, for instance, about government but not politics, teaching them "theory" but not reality; or about science but not about the compromises of the typical industrial laboratory. This practice often leads the young graduate to suffer unhappiness which, if he were forewarned, he might have avoided. He should have been taught how to adjust himself to the concrete situation and, at the same time, how to work to make it better. Education should, if it teaches students to hitch their wagons to stars, show them also how to make the reins with which to do the hitching. Otherwise, the typical graduate, on leaving college, will soon learn to reject with disdain the "theoretical nonsense" which he learned in school; and the atypical graduate who takes his schooling seriously will find adjustment unnecessarily difficult.

VII. PRINCIPLE OF MEASUREMENT OF EFFECTIVENESS

Is there a genuinely scientific attitude toward the educational process?

The word "experimental" is used frequently enough in contemporary educational literature. Nevertheless, educational experimentation worthy of comparison with medical experimentation is almost nonexistent. It is difficult to think of any far-reaching changes in educational policy, the operation and consequences of which have been analyzed, interpreted, and observed systematically. Studies at the University of Minnesota and at

⁴ The principles discussed here are related to many of the points discussed in my article, "Teaching Social Science as a Set of Social Skills," *American Sociological Review* (forthcoming).

Sarah Lawrence College represent the best that has been done along this line. Yet in educational institutions, as nowhere else in the social sciences, it is feasible to apply a true experimental method, just as Claude Bernard's disciples did a century ago in medicine. In education the two essential conditions of scientific research are present: (1) It is possible to formulate specific hypotheses related to general theories about the effect of determinate variables on defined units within a given system. (2) It is possible to observe, to differentiate, and, in large measure, to control the action of these variables upon the units in question within the system.

A sizable educational organization might well appoint staff members with a function similar to that of in-

dustrial engineers or administrative analysts. Their task would be to undertake systematic analyses of the operation and the effectiveness of teaching methods and organizational procedures. They would act as consultants to the chief executive and have only staff responsibility, with no operating assignments. For some years their chief objective would be to obtain clarity in the statement of objectives and techniques, since measurement is impossible without clarity of reference. It is probable that such clarity, in and of itself, would make teaching and administration more effective and, in the long run, would permit a much more satisfactory statement of the operative differences between the various educational philosophies.

CONTRASTS IN EUROPEAN AND AMERICAN SECONDARY EDUCATION

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THERE is a lot of difference between schools on the Blue Danube and those on the Columbia River, as I have had opportunity to find out. When my career as a Gymnasium (high-school) teacher in Vienna was abruptly terminated by that other native Austrian with the little mustache, I packed my red pencils and my teaching certificates to transfer my educational activities to the United States.

When, several years later, I walked into the spacious center hall of Grant High School on my first teaching assignment in this country, I anticipated a job more or less like that which I had left in 1938. Now, after two years in the Portland system I know better. I had considered myself fairly well educated, but every day I heard many strange words that made me realize my shocking ignorance. There were matching and multiple-choice tests, counselors, deans, extra-curriculum activities, girls' league and Senior "proms," workshops and in-service credits, May "queens" and "pep rallies," and lots of other things that increased my inferiority complex to fantastic dimensions.

The European high school has not yet shaken off the spirit of the old

Humanists or freed itself from the shackles of authoritarian government. Latin, Greek, and dynastic and military history are slow in giving way to modern languages, modern science, social studies, and the skills required for trade or business. The American school is free from this ballast of age-old tradition, and the American teacher has no reactionary caste attitude like that of many of his European colleagues. I can say with full sincerity that in most respects the American school is superior, and I consider myself most fortunate that I was promoted from an Old World to a New World educator.

I shall mention only a few advantages of the American system. The European Gymnasium is still primarily a school for the privileged. The enrolment is limited; the students must pass special entrance examinations. For the great majority of children, formal education is over when they finish junior high school at the age of fourteen. There are night schools for working youths, but it is extremely hard to graduate from these schools; for administrators and faculties are reluctant to grant the privileges of the *matura* (graduation) to those who were not exposed to eight

years of Gymnasium spirit. The American high school is truly a people's school, and the students represent a cross-section of American society.

In older times Austrian teachers were often recruited from the ranks of retired army sergeants. They were supposed to possess the necessary toughness for the job, and they could forcefully swing the cane—the main tool and symbol of the teacher. Although high-school students are not beaten any more, semi-military discipline is still the rule. Students stand at attention when the teacher enters, address him properly as *Herr Professor*, listen silently to his lecture, and accept his word without argument. Outstanding among disciplinary measures is the *carcer* (detention up to five hours or more). The faculty decides upon such a punishment in a sort of court session, and the parents of the culprit are then notified of the decision in a solemn official letter.

It may be easier to keep order under such conditions, but student and teacher are more at home and more at ease in the informal atmosphere of the American school. I was shocked at first when students would tap me on the shoulder and call out, "Hey, Doc," when they wanted my attention, but I soon found out that this informality was a sign of confidence, not of disrespect.

When the teacher is the absolute ruler of his class, marks take on the aspect of a mysterious weapon that he swings menacingly over the heads of his pupils. Since objective tests are

rarely used, the teacher is likely to give marks according to his general and subjective impressions. The end of the term is a time of great excitement and often of unpleasant surprises. The Viennese police used to be especially alerted when report cards were given out because there were always a number of juvenile runaways who dared not come home with their poor marks. Attempts at suicide could also be expected around this time. I have yet to find a Portland high-school student who would contemplate a tragic act like this on account of disappointing marks. He usually knows very well where he stands and could probably tabulate his marks as well as his teacher.

In the short-lived democratic era that passed over Central Europe after the first World War, student government was advocated and cautiously introduced by some progressive administrators, but the support of the teachers and of many parents was only half-hearted. The idea of students' holding elections and debating school matters was distasteful to them. I was one of the pioneer student-body presidents in my Senior year, and holding this office drew upon me the wrath of a great part of the faculty for allegedly undermining their authority. When the dark shadows of fascism started closing in, all these traces of democratic spirit were rapidly erased.

In Portland I was pleasantly surprised to see how smoothly student government functions. Its place in school life is undisputed. The students do not have to fight for their right of

self-expression; they are urged by the principal and faculty to take the initiative in numerous spheres of activity.

In keeping with the autocratic spirit of the Gymnasium, the student has no choice of teachers and almost none of subjects. He is assigned to a classroom, where he stays all morning, and at each period a different teacher enters to present his subject. A few nonacademic electives, such as shorthand, are taught in the afternoon, but they fall outside the normal curriculum and do not count for graduation. The recitation consists mainly of a lecture and a teacher-conducted review. Examinations, except in mathematics and languages, are mostly individual and oral—a procedure which means a lot of boredom and waste of time for the class as a whole. Of course there have always been exceptional teachers who did not fit into this pattern, but lecture, drill, and questioning are the standard program of the class period.

This description will give an idea of my predicament when I started to teach in Portland. No wonder the principal, after his first visit to my class, told me, "You talk too much." Without the benefit of formal training, I had to adopt an entirely new teaching technique at a moment's notice. Slowly, through trial and error, I discovered the devices used by the American teacher to stimulate student activity: debate, panel discussion, committee work, the use of the library, interviews, and the like. I learned to step down from the academic platform

and to sit in the background while the class worked out its problems.

The drill school turns out people with a vast stock of memorized knowledge. With the help of mnemonic trick verses, we tried to remember the date of the battle of Issus and the genders of Latin substantives. I still know the rules of the *accusativus cum infinitivo*, though classic languages are not my field. The graduate of the American high school knows fewer facts, but he knows where to find any facts that he needs. More important, he can conduct a meeting, make decisions, and voice an independent opinion.

The Gymnasium student hates school, or is bored by it, or both. He sits through the lessons eager to get away and to attend to his real interests. He lives his social and emotional life almost entirely outside the school. He is a member of a sport club or a *Turnverein* to which, and not to a school team, he lends his enthusiastic support. Thus arise the many youth movements and the yearning wanderlust of the adolescent who feels at home nowhere, least of all at school. This is one reason that young people in Germany and Austria responded so eagerly to the call of political gangsters, as they did in the Hitler Youth and the Storm Troopers.

In America the classes are only part of what the school offers. As a big American department store can clothe and feed you, furnish your home completely, and perform innumerable services for you, the American high school provides not only instruction

but also sound entertainment, fun, sports, team spirit, proper settings for romance, and activities for all kinds of juvenile interests, from camera clubs to newspaper-editing, from stirring patriotic assemblies to "hot jazz."

In spite of my obvious preference, I should like to say something good about the European school. The Gymnasium graduate has a sound background of factual knowledge that helps him in future professional studies. He is usually able to use his native language without flaws and can absorb foreign languages with considerable ease. Since he is forced to follow a rigid general curriculum, he has a little knowledge of all the humanities and sciences that his school offers. It is impossible, for example, to go through school without ever having studied geometry or a foreign language.

It also seems to me that the European teacher stands in much higher esteem with the adult public than does his American colleague. At one time both the president of Austria and the mayor of Vienna were school teachers, and other teachers held high public offices. In a village the schoolmaster, the preacher, and the doctor are the natural leaders of the community. My very limited experience does not indicate that any great number of American teachers are called on to provide leadership in their local communities or in national politics. I am, of course, aware that there are many noteworthy exceptions, though I would not include among them persons like the late Wendell Wilkie, who

probably never intended to make school teaching his career.

The American teacher does not sit in the front row of social life, but he is richly compensated by being a free person—free to teach his ideas and to live his life. He is not censored by autocratic superiors, nor does he have to bow and humiliate himself before them. I remember very well how the Gymnasium faculty became "jittery" when the supervisor entered the building; then the grown-up teachers again became schoolboys who trembled before their master.

If the American public is only moderately interested in its teachers, it certainly takes pride in the place of the teachers' activities. In European cities the biggest and most elaborate buildings, aside from cathedrals, are the palaces of royalty and aristocracy. In America many of the finest buildings are found on the campuses of the institutions of learning. Traveling through this country, I was often impressed at finding, even in the humblest village, a spacious and clean red-brick schoolhouse surrounded by ample, green playgrounds. Though I went to school in a much larger and perhaps more famous city than Portland, the building in which I was a student and later a teacher would be a sorry sight if suddenly placed next to the school in which I now work.

The waves of the Blue Danube may murmur of the glory and music of bygone days, but in the rushing of the Columbia River I hear the song of a great future.

CO-OPERATIVE EDUCATION—THE GRADUATES' VIEWPOINT

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A STUDY was completed recently at the Rochester Institute of Technology in an attempt to ascertain the opinions that graduates have of the co-operative work program in operation there. Since no record has thus far been found in educational literature of any similar survey by institutions offering co-operative work programs, the results cannot be compared with those elsewhere. It seems probable, however, that the results of this inquiry may well be representative of the opinions of many graduates of other co-operative programs at the secondary-school and college levels.

In the survey conducted at Rochester, questionnaires were sent out to three hundred graduates of the chemistry, electrical, mechanical, food administration, and retailing departments who had been graduated from the Institute from three to seven years earlier. One hundred and five answers were received, and the tabulations that follow are based on these replies.

LENGTH OF WORK BLOCK

One of the subjects about which there has been much comment on the part of students and employers is the

length of the work block. For more than ten years the Institute has operated on a four-week alternating block plan, and frequent suggestions have been made that this period be lengthened or, in a few cases, shortened. Graduates were asked if they thought that their work experience when in school would have been more satisfactory if the school and work blocks had been longer. If their reply was in the affirmative, they were asked to check which of several work-block lengths seemed most suitable. The consensus of their replies was as follows: 52 per cent preferred the present four-week block; 14 per cent preferred a six-week block; 25 per cent preferred an eight-week block; 6 per cent preferred a twelve-week block; 3 per cent preferred a block of more than twelve weeks.

OBJECTIVES ATTAINED IN CO-OPERATIVE WORK

In another question in this survey, the graduates were asked to list, in order of importance to them, the first three of ten objectives which, in their opinion, they most adequately achieved through co-operative education. Table 1 indicates how the graduates felt on this question. It

is interesting to note that to male graduates, just as to students, the factor of prime importance is the financial assistance which this type of education provides. On the other hand, the women indicate that the opportunity provided for practical application of theory is the most important.

TABLE 1

RANK ORDER OF OBJECTIVES OF CO-OPERATIVE EDUCATION WHICH GRADUATES FELT THEY MOST ADEQUATELY ACHIEVED

OBJECTIVE	RANK	
	Men	Women
Financial assistance made education possible.....	1	6
Provided training in occupation.....	2	4
Practical application of theory	3	1
Understanding of working conditions in industry.....	4	2
Developed manual skills.....	5	11
Increased ability to get along with people.....	6	3
Increased interest in furthering professional growth....	7	9
Contacts for employment after graduation.....	8	8
Increased interest in school...	9	7
Other reasons.....	10	10
Feeling of status.....	11	5

STUDYING UNDER A CO-OPERATIVE PROGRAM AGAIN

The graduates polled were asked: "In the event that you were once again faced with the decision of taking the same three-year course, would you elect to come on a full-time or a co-operative schedule?" Ninety-one graduates (87 per cent) indicated that they would come on a co-operative schedule. It is highly encouraging to note that such a large majority of

the graduates would prefer to return as co-operative students, although it is not possible to deduce from the answers whether this plan would be selected largely because of its training possibilities or because of the financial assistance that it provides.

IMPROVING JOB CO-ORDINATION

The graduates were asked: "Do you believe there might have been closer co-ordination between the courses studied in school and the work done on the job?" Forty-six per cent of those polled thought that there might have been closer co-ordination. They were asked to write in any suggestions that they would care to make on how job co-ordination could be improved by the Institute and by the co-operating employers. A wide range of opinion was expressed on this subject, and the responses cannot readily be tabulated. Some of the comments which seem to be representative of the graduates' views are included here unedited:

1. The job is simply the means to further one's education. The courses studied should be thoroughly treated—scientific and technical. One should not be trained for a specific job in a specific company. The more general the better, as long as the course is thorough.

2. Industry is chiefly interested in getting a job done as cheaply and efficiently as possible. It would, of course, be advantageous for the student if the company he is working for would give him as wide and as varied experience as can be had in that company—but this cannot be expected.

3. Classes in the evening, perhaps twice a week, to enable the student to ask ques-

tions on theory related to his job and also to enable him to obtain help on the school work he is doing evenings during his working period. A month with no contact with the school at all is too long.

4. The stores should work more closely with the Institute. The opinions and suggestions of students should be asked for and considered, as many could help the store.

5. Avoid using student-workers on high-speed assembly and production work. This practice may be convenient for the shop but contributes little to the students' knowledge and also creates an accident hazard for the unpracticed student.

SOME CONCLUSIONS

Although the picture as a whole is encouraging, a number of generalizations concerning the graduates of this institution, and possibly those of other co-operative programs as well, may be made from this study:

1. Approximately one-half of the graduates felt that there might have been closer co-ordination between the experiences which they had on the job and their major course in school.

2. Approximately one-half of the graduates would have preferred a longer block, while the other half considered the four-week block satisfactory.

3. The graduates felt that some of the co-operating firms did not view them as potential supervisors in training and hence did not provide them with planned programs of work experience. Some graduates felt that industry viewed them as a necessary evil, while several felt that industry used students as a cheap source of labor.

4. The great majority of students were apparently convinced of the value of the co-operative experiences that they had received and, if faced with the problem of returning to school, would select a co-operative schedule in preference to a full-time schedule. Apparently there are certain indirect values to the co-operative work experiences which students do not appreciate until after graduation.

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Educational Writings

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REVIEWS AND BOOK NOTES

VOCATIONAL COUNSELING.—The two most important aspects of an effective vocational guidance program are (1) helping the individual to evaluate his own qualifications and interests and (2) relating these assets to the demands of occupations in which the individual can achieve success and in which there are opportunities for employment. The individual-analysis phase, as a consequence of the studies of psychometrists and psychologists, has marched forward with rapidity; but the job-analysis aspect has tended to vegetate. While the Occupational Research Program of the United States Employment Service has done much to give indirect help to occupational counseling, this program has been concerned with the selection rather than with the guidance of individuals. Guidance workers who are familiar with the research studies of the United States Employment Service have long felt a need for a book of instructions on how to use, in counseling, the material accumulated by the Occupational Research Program. *Occupational Information*¹ definitely meets this need.

The book deals with such subjects as obtaining occupational information, describing jobs and occupations, classifying jobs and occupations, developing occupational families, aiding individuals in transferring from military to civilian occupations, securing information about industries and patterns of occupations, and helping the handicapped to procure suitable jobs. Readers of Shartle's book will find the last chapter, "Current and Future Occupational Opportunities," especially valuable in analyzing future occupational trends.

¹ Carroll L. Shartle, *Occupational Information: Its Development and Application*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1946. Pp. xiv + 340.

Occupational Information is written in a clear, terse, and readable style. Counselors who have viewed with skepticism the "clinical-diagnosis" movement in vocational guidance will read with interest several comments with respect to academically trained counselors who lack occupational experience. Among them are the following:

In many situations the counselor with the academic deficiency but the knowledge of occupations is preferred [p. 9].

... one counselee said, "That counselor has a lot of book stuff on occupations, but he wouldn't know a job if he saw one" [p. 75].

Shartle is careful to point out that "the competent counselor is, of course, the one who is not deficient in either area" (p. 9).

Numerous charts, tables, facsimiles of forms and reports, exercises, and practice sheets are presented. These should facilitate the use of fundamental occupational information accumulated by federal agencies. Furthermore, the reader of *Occupational Information* will be made well aware of the limitations of such data, since Shartle describes these limitations in specific terms.

This reviewer can find only one minor criticism to make with reference to this contribution to the literature on vocational guidance, namely, that commercial publications on occupational information have been listed in too great detail. For example, two and one-half pages (pp. 88-90) are devoted to the listing of "Careers Research Monographs." Such information is easily procured from the publishers; it is, in fact, distributed freely by them in order to advertise their publications. On the other hand, the suggested supplementary readings and references to related literature should prove helpful to the neophyte in the field of occupation-

al information. This volume deserves a place in the library of every vocational counselor.

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TECHNIQUE OF SOCIOLOGY APPLIED TO LIBERAL EDUCATION.—It is generally agreed that a program of general or liberal education must be provided for youth if our ideals of democracy are to be preserved. Several colleges have made reports of programs of this kind which either are already in operation or are planned for the future. These reports have presented widely varying concepts of a liberal education and of the means by which it may be realized.

A recent report¹ conceives of a kind of liberal education which extends to the masses, allows for individual differences, and is based on the assumption that coherence and integration take place in the student, "not in the college catalogue or in the mind of the teacher" (p. 6). Field work is presented as a basic technique for implementing this program of liberal education. The work-study program of Antioch College, the midwinter work period and survey of Bennington College, required field work at Keuka College, and both undergraduate and graduate field work at the University of Chicago are cited as indications that the basic philosophy and technique of field work are accepted and practiced.

The project described was carried on at Sarah Lawrence College from 1935 to 1940, under a grant from the General Education Board. It is presented as "simply one contribution to a growing body of experience." The technique of field work was used "not only in the social sciences and psychology but extensively in the visual arts, theater, and the dance, in the natural sciences, and in courses in observation and writing, in the

teaching of English" (p. 15). Mrs. Lynd discusses the project as it contributed to five aspects of education: (1) Freshman orientation (2) education in social science, (3) relationship between the college and the community, (4) individual development, and (5) postwar education.

It was hoped that field work would enable the Freshman to become "strong in his own values instead of putting his trust in labels and external standards" (p. 18). Two courses offered to Freshmen, "Development of a Community" and "Living in a Community," are described. Accounts of changes in student attitudes, opinions, and prejudices are presented in the students' own words. In the social sciences, two courses involving field work are discussed at some length. Appendixes include complete reports of six field studies, as written by the students.

The outcomes of field-work projects are considered from two points of view. On the public side, a newspaper is quoted as reporting: "The United States Housing Authority, on the basis of a survey conducted in 1939 by twenty-five students in Sarah Lawrence College, has made a \$325,000 grant to the Tuckahoe Housing Authority to finance a slum-clearance and low-rent housing project in Tuckahoe" (p. 68). On the educational side, the teachers reported favorable reactions of the class and of individual students, especially in increased motivation. The successful attempt to bring the college and the community together which resulted in the organization of the United Nationalities Council in Yonkers has a human-interest appeal and is one of the high lights of the report. A chapter devoted to "Field Work for Individual Development" gives selected case studies reported by teachers showing how field work influenced the development of the students. "Ways of Using Field Work" includes reports of teachers which tell of difficulties and failure as well as of successful methods. The treatment of postwar problems in education reiterates the previous assumptions about the nature of a desirable liberal education and the need for it.

¹ Helen Merrell Lynd, *Field Work in College Education*. Sarah Lawrence College Publications, No. 5. New York: Columbia University Press, 1945. Pp. xii+302. \$2.75.

Mrs. Lynd is well known to the reading public as co-author of the highly popular community studies, *Middletown* and *Middletown in Transition*. The present report is interestingly written, but its loose organization and journalistic style seem designed to persuade rather than to inform. The reader is disappointed when he finds that the work reported in this volume is largely limited to projects related to the field of the social sciences. Data as to the scope and intensity of participation in the various subject-matter fields are missing. No attempt at comparison between control and experimental groups or matched pairs of individuals is reported.

However, the book contains thought-provoking, practical suggestions for the teacher and the curriculum builder, and it is a necessary addition to the library of those interested in new and significant ventures in educational philosophy and practice.

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INSTRUCTIONAL AND ADMINISTRATIVE ASPECTS OF AUDIO-VISUAL AIDS.—Practical suggestions on the essentials of instructional usage and administrative supervision of audio-visual aids are ever welcome, as problems pertaining to the development of audio-visual education continue to arise. The following recent additions to the literature contribute in various ways to our knowledge on the subject.

First to appear, of late, is an attractive, pocket-sized manual¹ on the general subject of motion pictures, film strips, and slides. Ostensibly directed to those who desire suggestions on how to use films effectively, the treatment nevertheless digresses frequently to considerations which are largely administrative, thereby posing questions in the mind of the teacher as to what applies to him and what is superfluous for his purposes.

¹ George H. Fern and Eldon Robbins, *Teaching with Films*. Milwaukee, Wisconsin: Bruce Publishing Co., 1946. Pp. xiv+146. \$1.75.

The volume opens with an introduction characterized chiefly by naïve wonder at the alleged perfection of military instructional techniques, with some criticism of the teaching profession for not adopting these procedures with more enthusiasm. The discussion of problems of equipment is extensive, somewhat technical, occasionally inaccurate, and it deals with considerations more administrative than instructional in their import.

The chapter on the characteristics of the film describes slides as well as the motion picture. It begins by providing a fairly good background on which to base the more exact, comprehensive treatment in the ensuing chapter on techniques of use. Chapter v, "Making Your Own Teaching Films," touches lightly on the motion picture but presents an excellent discussion of the production of miniature slides.

Teaching with Films closes with a special chapter for the administrator, but it includes helpful information for the teacher as well. Many of the suggestions are laudable, although the reader may encounter difficulty in deciding which parts of the volume should be accepted. The estimate of the per pupil cost for an adequate program is deplorably low, and the emphasis on providing special projection rooms for sound films, rather than using equipment in classrooms themselves, cannot be universally accepted as desirable administrative practice. The chapter closes with good suggestions for a series of in-service teacher-training sessions.

The volume is entertainingly written, is spiced with pungent similes, and may prove interesting to the potential visual educator new to the field. Because of technical errors and numerous contradictions, this reviewer, much as he regrets the necessity, cautions the acceptance of all the information included as fact.

The second of these recent handbooks² for

² Philip Mannino, *ABC's of Visual Aids and Projectionist's Manual*. State College, Pennsylvania: Philip Mannino, 1946. Pp. 84.

users of audio-visual aids is essentially a guide for the administrator and technician and, as such, is a valuable storehouse of information and technical data.

Helpful chapters are devoted to the selection of equipment, the preparation of the classroom for projection, and the general procedures concomitant to effective operation of a sound-motion-picture projector. When the author begins a detailed, lengthy discussion of the repair and maintenance of equipment, the average teacher or administrator may find himself in deep water. That chapter may prove of most value to the consulting technician. However, by a little application to detail, the administrator of the audio-visual program or the teacher charged with similar responsibilities may, through reading this chapter, find himself in a position to appraise more adequately the equipment needs of a functioning program.

No match for the book, *Teaching with Films*, in pleasing format, illustrations, or style, the *ABC's of Visual Aids and Projectionist's Manual* is rough hewn but has the ring of authority about it. Illustrations and more diagrams would have increased the value of the handbook. Nevertheless, for those who wish to know the underlying, as well as the more superficial, aspects of equipment selection and use, the volume should prove a helpful addition to the available literature.

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OLD VERSUS NEW METHODS IN TEACHING TYPEWRITING.—The teacher of typewriting who has clung to the traditional methods of instruction and the teacher who has deviated from the standard procedure will be equally interested in a recent publication,¹ a supplement of the *Journal of Business* of the

¹ Viola DuFrain, *The Practicability of Emphasizing Speed before Accuracy in Elementary Typewriting*. A Supplement to the *Journal of Business* of the University of Chicago, July, 1945. Studies in Business Administration, Vol. XV, No. 3. Chicago 37: University of Chicago Press, 1945. Pp. vi+74.

University of Chicago. The report challenges the superiority of results in typing classes where accuracy and perfection in technique are demanded before speed in stroking is introduced; it submits the hypothesis that better results could be achieved by emphasizing speed first and stressing accuracy later.

The study was prompted by Gilbreth's time and motion studies of bricklaying and other skills, showing that high-speed patterns differ from those at low-speed levels. The investigation was further desired because of the divergencies noted in a study of five commonly used textbooks. An experimental plan was developed, whereby speed would be emphasized from the beginning of the course and there would be several drives for higher speed goals followed by brief periods in which accuracy was to be emphasized.

Eight one-semester classes in typewriting were organized in four schools. The same teacher in each school instructed one class with the experimental approach and the other class with the traditional method.

A description of the progress of the two groups of students is given, in addition to tables and graphs of individual cases. The results in the experimental classes revealed a very high rate of speed in the early learning period. This speed continued to be higher than the average of the control classes throughout the semester. The error rate was exceedingly high in the experimental classes in the first weeks, but sharp reductions in errors were observed when the accuracy emphasis was taking place. The errors finally were reduced to a level comparable with that of the control classes. The latter maintained a high degree of accuracy and showed a gradual increase in speed. There was a significant difference between the speed attainments of the two groups, in favor of the experimental classes; and a slight difference (considered insignificant) between the accuracy attainments of the two groups, in favor of the control classes.

The author confined her analysis of contemporary typing procedure to that which

was found in five textbooks commonly used today. It should be observed that many typing teachers have long advocated emphasis on speed from the first lesson and that these same teachers have pointed to the detrimental effects of constant pressure for accuracy. However, this study is the first to be carried on scientifically for the purpose of comparing an accuracy approach with a speed approach. It should lead to more studies of the phenomena of habit formation in learning typewriting.

The appendixes include examples of the lesson plans used in the two kinds of classes, the student's text, the typing copy that was designed especially for the testing, and additional data. Typing teachers will want to study this report. It should aid in the standardization of speed-accuracy emphases in teaching elementary typewriting.

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